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THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

GREAT LAKES RESEARCH DIVISION
INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

***Postglacial Uplift in the
Great Lakes Region***

WILLIAM F. MacLEAN



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ERRATA

Page v Read Table 2-B...p. 92 for Table 2-B...p. 96

Page v Read Table 4.....p. 98 for Table 4.....p. 97

Page 128 Read mph/summer season for mph

Page 142 Read

$$b = \frac{\sum XY - \frac{(\sum X)(\sum Y)}{n}}{\sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{n}} \quad \text{for} \quad b = \frac{\epsilon_{xy} - \frac{(\epsilon x)(\epsilon y)}{n}}{\epsilon x^2 - \frac{(\epsilon x)^2}{n}}$$

$$\text{Read } a = \frac{\sum Y}{n} - b \frac{\sum X}{n} \quad \text{for} \quad a = \frac{\epsilon y}{n} - b \frac{\epsilon x}{n}$$

Page 147 Read p. 123 for p. 122.

POSTGLACIAL UPLIFT IN THE GREAT LAKES REGION

by

William F. MacLean

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Institute of Science and Technology

The University of Michigan
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PREFACE

The purpose of this study is to analyze and evaluate the factors involved in the determination of modern rates of postglacial crustal movement in the Great Lakes region in order to ascertain the validity of previously determined rates of uplift.

Because the calculation of uplift rates are based on findings from many fields, i.e., geology, geophysics, geodesy, meteorology, oceanography, and engineering, it is necessary to integrate information from all of these fields if a solution to the problem is to be found.

Data and aid from the following organizations and individuals are gratefully acknowledged: U. S. Lake Survey (lake-level elevations, gage histories, operating procedures); Canadian Hydrographic Service (precise leveling and gage histories, lake-level elevations); Canadian Meteorological Division (wind, temperature, and barometric pressure data); Great Lakes Research Division, Institute of Science and Technology, The University of Michigan (financial support, July, 1960, through January, 1961, and reproduction of report); University of Michigan Computing Center (computer time for r correlations); Professor L. I. Briggs and Frank Moser (correlation computer program); U. S. National Weather Records Center (wind data); and the members of my doctoral committee, Professors J. T. Wilson, J. C. Ayers, L. I. Briggs, D. F. Eschman, and J. H. Zumberge.

The text of this report was submitted as a doctoral dissertation to the Horace H. Rackham School of Graduate Studies, The University of Michigan.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to analyze and evaluate the factors which are involved in the determination of modern rates of postglacial crustal movement in the Great Lakes region in order to ascertain the validity of previously determined rates of uplift.

Because the calculations of rates of uplift are based on findings from many fields, i.e., geology, geophysics, geodesy, meteorology, oceanography, and engineering, it is necessary to integrate information from all of these fields if a solution to the problem is to be found.

The problem was studied by the following methods:

(a) by analyzing the data, methods, and results of previous investigators of modern uplift; (b) by comparing modern areas and rates of uplift with areas and rates of uplift based on differential warping of former glacial lake shoreline features; (c) by comparing modern uplift in the Great Lakes region with modern uplift in Fennoscandia; (d) by examining principles of operation, instrument construction, external influences, and errors which are inherent in water-level gaging (the results of gaging are used to calculate modern rates of uplift); (e) by computing daily, monthly and summer season vector winds for Lakes Erie, Ontario and Superior (1950-59) in order to test the assumption (underlying water-leveling and the calculation of rates of uplift) that the summer mean Great Lakes water surfaces are level; and (f) by making a correlation study of effective wind velocities and lake-level gage differences to determine if gage differences represent land uplift, or wind slope of the lake surface.

The results indicate that: (a) all previously determined modern rates of uplift on Lake Erie are not valid because Lake Erie is in the postglacial area of horizontality; (b) all rates of modern uplift based on pairs of gages in which one gage is south of the Nipissing zero isobase are also not valid; and (c) rates of uplift on Lake Superior and on the other Great Lakes which are based on records of gage pairs located north of the Nipissing zero isobase are probably erroneous owing to the inclusion in the gage differences of errors caused by meteorological effects, gage location effects, instrument error and operator error.

Six of the more important conclusions are:

1. Lake-level gages used to detect and measure modern uplift must be north of the known area of horizontality (i.e., north of the Nipissing zero isobase). Gage records must be corrected for meteorological, in-

strument and operator errors.

2. The Lake Erie correlation study showed that gage differences represent, almost wholly, meteorological effects and not uplift.

3. The summer season mean water surfaces of the Great Lakes are not level.

4. Ekman's theory of ocean currents should be re-examined and modified on the basis of empirical observations.

5. The Lake Erie correlation study indicated that Ekman's concept of water-surface slope direction being in the direction of the wind is incorrect; on Lake Erie the water-surface slope direction is about 23° to the right of the wind.

6. The angle of deviation of surface currents from wind directions on Lake Erie (c 23° to the right) should also be representative of the angle of deviation for the other Great Lakes.))

I. HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

Fennoscandia

The phenomenon of land rising from a body of water has been a subject of study and speculation since Classical times. Although Greek, Roman and Medieval writers recorded the uplift of land in volcanic areas, it was not until 1625 that slow imperceptible uplift of land in a non-volcanic region was mentioned in a Finnish book of discourses.

The gradual seaward retreat of the shorelines of the shallow Baltic Sea and the Gulf of Bothnia, as well as the shoaling of harbors and waterways, caused Scandinavian naturalists of the late 17th and early 18th centuries to speculate as to its cause. The question soon arose as to whether the land in the Baltic area was rising, or the quantity of water in the sea diminishing. Such noted scientists as Linnaeus, Celsius and Swedenborg held that the waters of the Baltic Sea were decreasing.

In an effort to actually measure the change between land and sea, Anders Celsius made what is probably the first systematic observations of this relative change when, in 1731, he had marks corresponding to sea level and the date chiseled into exposed bedrock. By comparing later marks with the 1731 mark, Celsius estimated the lowering of sea level to be 4.1 feet per century. (Kääriäinen, 1953, p. 7).

The theory of diminishing water was shown to be false by the Bishop of Abo, Johan Browallius, in 1755 when he pointed out that the sea maintains an equilibrium and that churches built in Sweden in the 13th century were still near the shore and ancient buildings in southern Sweden and Denmark were still on the shore; therefore a general decrease of sea level could not have occurred. (Kääriäinen, 1953, p. 8; Thorarinsson, 1940, p. 132; Bergsten, 1930, p. 21).

E. O. Runeberg of Finland was the first proponent of crustal elevation as the cause of the shifting of the coastline of the Gulf of Bothnia. His observations and studies led him to declare in 1765 that the earth's crust rises while sea level remains the same. (Kääriäinen, 1953, p. 8; Bergsten, 1930, p. 21.) This view was also supported by Playfair (1802, pp. 445-447) in his Illustrations of the Huttonian Theory and by Von Buch (1813, p. 386) in his Travels through Norway and Lapland during the years 1806, 1807 and 1808.

Charles Lyell (1837, pp. 437-449) discussed the uplift of land in the Baltic region in "Chapter XVII, Elevation and Subsidence of Land without Earthquakes" in his Principles of Geology. This chapter, which summarized the investigations and observations which had been made before 1837, concluded with remarks as to the significance of a slow secular uplift and speculated as to its cause. Lyell's last paragraph of Chapter XVII supplies the views of the possible causes of the Baltic uplift which were current in the first half of the 19th century. He states (1837, p. 449):

The foundations of the country, thus gradually uplifted in Sweden, must be undergoing important modifications. Whether we ascribe these to an expansion of solid matter by continually increasing heat, or to the liquefaction of rock, or to the crystallization of a dense fluid, or the accumulation of pent-up gases, in whatever conjecture we indulge, we can never doubt for a moment, that at some unknown depth the structure of the globe is in our own times becoming changed from day to day, throughout a space probably more than a thousand miles in length and several hundred in breadth.

The modern theory of the cause of crustal movement in Fennoscandia and North America, i.e., ice unloading and subsequent isostatic adjustment, was proposed by a Scot, Thomas F. Jamieson, in 1865. His theory, quoted in the following paragraph, was later developed in detail in the paper "On the Cause of the Depression and Re-elevation of the Land during the Glacial Period" published in The Geological Magazine in 1882.

Jamieson (1865, p. 178) stated in his first expression of the theory that:

It is worthy of remark that in Scandinavia and North America, as well as in Scotland, we have evidence of the great ice-covering; and singular to say, the height to which marine fossils have been found in all three countries is very nearly the same. It has occurred to me that the enormous weight of the ice thrown upon the land may have had something to do with this depression. Agassiz considers the ice to have been a mile thick in some parts of America; and everything points to a great thickness in Scandinavia and North Britain. We don't know what is the state of the matter on which the solid crust of the earth reposes. If it is in a state of fusion, a depression might take place from a cause of this kind, and then the melting of the ice would account for the rising of the land, which seems to have followed upon the decrease of the glaciers.

Fennoscandia continued to provide material for research on differential uplift of the land until, according to E. Kääriäinen (1953, p. 9),

fifty or more scientists had investigated uplift in this region before the beginning of the twentieth century. Since 1900 more than forty European and British geologists, geodesists and engineers have studied and reported upon post-glacial and contemporary differential land uplift in the Baltic region.

The importance of Fennoscandian investigations of this secular uplift to similar studies in the Great Lakes area may be briefly stated—the Fennoscandian studies pioneered in the use of water gaging and precise leveling to reveal uplift, in applying corrections (chiefly meteorological) to water gaging in order to reduce systematic errors and in supplying the necessary mechanism for the cause of the uplift.

These European studies, published over a period of more than 200 years, were probably the source of American ideas on this subject. Furthermore, the current Scandinavian literature dealing with modern crustal deformation reveals many concepts and techniques, particularly in the application of corrections for systematic errors, which have not been used in American studies of the same topic.

Great Lakes Region

Detection of crustal movements in the Great Lakes region has been hampered by the large area involved, by the sparse population (consequently by the limited number of observers), and by the relatively short time that the region has been settled. The limited distribution of obser-

vation points coupled with the short period of recorded observation may help to explain why the first systematic study of "modern" land uplift was not undertaken until 1896 by Dr. G. K. Gilbert.

Three members of the early geological surveys of New York, Ohio and Michigan reported ancient uplifted beaches. Ebenezer Emmons (1837, p. 123), geologist for the New York Natural History Survey, described concurrent land uplift along the St. Lawrence River; he compared it to the uplift in Norway and said that the only way of discovering its magnitude was to establish fixed land marks which would be compared over a number of years. Emmons (1838, p. 239) also discussed uplift in the Lake Champlain area. Charles Whittlesey (1838, p. 55), topographer of the Ohio Geological Survey, reported measuring ancient tilted beaches south of the Lake Erie shore in 1838, and Bela Hubbard (1840, pp. 105-106) of the Michigan Geological Survey described the formation of raised beaches near Lake Erie as follows:

...In other words, the land has been subsequently subjected to an upheaving force, which at last has elevated the whole far above the influence of the sea.

Whether the upheaving of the land was general at this era, throughout the continent or was mainly operative in the region of the lakes, probably cannot be satisfactorily determined. It may be competent, however, to suppose that these apparent "lake ridges" were the boundaries of the ancient sea formed during intervals of rest in the upward tendency of the land.

.....

There also exist strong reasons for supposing that the relative levels of the land did not everywhere remain the same, or that disproportionate elevations took place....

Despite the early recognition of tilted beaches in the lower Great Lakes region it was not until the latter part of the 19th century that the studies of deformed postglacial shoreline features by Bell, Gilbert, Goldthwait, Lawson, Leverett, Spencer, Taylor and Upham provided the proper "atmosphere" for the consideration of modern uplift.

G. R. Stuntz, a Wisconsin surveyor, submitted a paper to the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1854 in which he suggested that the waters of Lake Superior appeared to be rising at the west end of the lake and falling at the eastern end. This paper, which was published in 1869, was one of the first to infer that a change was taking place in modern times in the relative positions of the lake water and the land (1869, pp. 205-210).

In 1868 (p. 129), N. S. Shaler, while discussing changes of level of shorelines said: "...Looking still further, we perceive some very peculiar features in the distribution of the changes of level which are still going forward, or which have taken place since the close of the glacial period."

The next suggestion that modern land uplift could be occurring was made by Robert Bell in his description of his explorations of the Hudson Bay area. Despite the fact that Bell later (1897) spoke of the "Rising of the Land around Hudson Bay," in his earlier reports he was not as definite in asserting that uplift was occurring. Bell's report published in 1880 spoke of:

...the comparatively rapid elevation of the land, or retiring of the sea, around James Bay and at York Factory was referred to in my reports for 1877 and 1878. ... This recession of the sea may be due to a general lowering of its level relatively to the land, and partly to the silting up of portions of Hudson's Bay, interrupting the free flow of the tides (p. 21c).

The first definite statement regarding modern crustal movement in the Great Lakes area was made by J. W. Spencer (1894) in a paper "The Duration of Niagara Falls." He (p. 472) concluded his paper by declaring: "...Lastly, if the rate of terrestrial deformation continues as it appears to have done, then in about 5000 years the life of Niagara Falls will cease by the turning of the waters into the Mississippi." Spencer (1907, 1913) later recanted this hypothesis (the same idea has been expressed by other writers several times since his original utterance) after reworking Gilbert's data in conjunction with additional information.

Grove Karl Gilbert (1896-97) made the first determination of land uplift in the Great Lakes region using "modern" observations. The underlying principles of his procedures and techniques have been followed by all subsequent investigators. Gilbert's original determination of the amount of earth tilting was prompted by the speculation that the forces which had tilted former beaches were still active and could be detected. He made use of the U. S. Lake Survey assumption that a lake surface is level if measured over a "protracted" period to provide the necessary level for comparison between pairs of gages located in the general direction of tilt.

Four pairs of water-level gages were used and the rate of tilting was found by comparing the gage differences for each pair of gages for 1874 with the gage differences of the same pairs for 1896. Because the gage differences were compared in relation to the same datum (the level lake surface) they would have been the same in 1896 as in 1874 if no tilting had occurred. However, the gage differences for 1896 differed from those of 1874 which caused Gilbert to conclude that tilting had occurred during the intervening years.

Gilbert's awareness of the pitfalls which were present in his assumptions, raw data, and method of calculation induced him to include a discussion of the sources and importance of errors inherent in the data and method. His report also included a section on "Plans for Precise Measurement," which, if followed, would have greatly reduced or eliminated the systematic errors which are still intrinsic in water-level records.

The next two studies of modern crustal movement were made by J. W. Spencer in 1907 and 1913. Spencer applied Gilbert's techniques to the study of gage records taken from 1855 to 1905 in the first paper and from 1855 to 1912 in the second paper. He calculated the gage differences for periods of five years (using the mean daily lake levels), and concluded from his study that the means of all the five year periods from 1855 to 1912 were within the limits of the probable error—therefore the earth's crust was stable.

These investigations were followed by a paper in 1922 by Sherman Moore, an engineer of the U. S. Lake Survey. Again using the procedure originated by Gilbert, Moore examined 18 pairs of gages whose periods of record were from 1870-80 to 1919. The gages were located on all of the Great Lakes, including Lake Superior. Moore's determination of the rates of uplift for Lake Superior were the first calculated for that lake. His conclusion was that tilting of the land occurs on all of the lakes but that the rates vary for different lake basins. Moore's estimate of the general rate of tilting was about six inches in one hundred miles in one hundred years.

The controversy arising from the diversion of water from Lake Michigan by the City of Chicago led to two studies of the hydrology of the Great Lakes. These studies, one by John R. Freeman in 1926 and the other by R. E. Horton and C. E. Grunsky in 1927, included determinations of land uplift. Both papers reviewed the literature dealing with this topic and both recalculated the rate of movement. The results were essentially the same as had been found by previous investigators, although Horton and Grunsky concluded that no uplift was occurring around Lake Erie.

✓ Beno Gutenberg (1933) conducted an investigation of "Tilting Due to Glacial Melting," including not only the Great Lakes region but also Hudson Bay and Scandinavia. His paper included a compilation of previous work on crustal deformation, the calculation of rates of movement on

the Great Lakes from 28 pairs of gages, and a discussion of the determination of changes of level by means of the examination of ocean tide gage records. His results concurred with those of Gilbert, Moore and Freeman.

Eight years after his first paper on postglacial tilting, B. Gutenberg (1941) published a much more comprehensive work "Changes in Sea Level, Postglacial Uplift, and Mobility of the Earth's Interior." Using additional lake-level gages and tide gages, Gutenberg made new calculations of the rates of uplift in both North American and Fennoscandia, which he demonstrated could be used to help determine the viscosity and strength of the earth.

✓ Sherman Moore's (1948) second paper on "Crustal Movement in the Great Lakes Area" was the result of data which had been accumulated in order to establish a new datum (1935 Datum) on the Great Lakes.

The re-leveling, both water and instrumental, which was necessary to establish the new datum permitted Moore to determine the rates of uplift in relation to sea level. Moore's analysis of the data led to a number of interesting conclusions, several of which do not concur with current geologic thought. Moore (p. 697) inferred that, "The entire area, except for the extreme northerly part of Lake Superior is subsiding with respect to sea level." He (p. 708) also stated, "Whatever the cause of the postglacial warping, there seems to be no connection between the present movement and isostatic recovery from the weight of the ice."

In 1954 Charles A. Price of the Canadian Hydrographic Service reported on the "Crustal Movement in the Lake Ontario—Upper St. Lawrence River Basin." The procedures which he used were those employed by previous investigators. Price (1954, Pl. 0-6) reported the over-all change in gage relations as 0.53 feet per 100 miles per 100 years with tilting occurring in a direction N 40° E.

The most recent determination of rates of crustal movement in the Great Lakes region are those of the Vertical Control Subcommittee of the Coordinating Committee on Great Lakes Basic Hydraulic and Hydrologic Data. The Subcommittee, which is composed of Canadian and American members, was appointed to establish a new level datum for the Great Lakes. Part of its duties included the study of crustal movements. The results of the Subcommittee findings have not been published although interim reports have been issued to participating government agencies.

The techniques which are used by the Subcommittee to calculate rates of movement are those which were originated by Gilbert in 1896. Although certain minor specifications were made as to the data to be used, the Subcommittee has not analyzed the concepts or assumptions which are inherent in the calculation of rates of movement by the lake-level gage procedure; therefore it may be expected that its findings will agree for the most part with prior determinations.)

II. LAND UPLIFT

"Land uplift" which is defined as, "Elevation of any extensive part of the earth's surface relatively to some other part...." (A.G.I., 1951, p. 310) will be restricted in this study to the differential vertical movement of land in the former glaciated areas of Fennoscandia and North America.

The existence of this land uplift has been revealed by the measurement of warped former shoreline features of late and postglacial water bodies; by examination of water-level gage records of modern lakes and seas; and by precise leveling.

As the ice sheets of Late Wisconsin time retreated in the Great Lakes region toward the center of glaciation in the area of Hudson Bay, large lakes were formed by glacier ice blocking the normal drainage of the land. The waters of these glacier-margin lakes rose until they were able to escape to the south over low areas of the Great Lakes watershed. As the glacier front retreated, or occasionally advanced slightly, various outlets were covered or uncovered, which allowed the lakes to vary in size and elevation. The lake levels remained constant long enough for shoreline features, i.e., beaches, wave-cut cliffs, deltas, to be developed on the emerging shores. Shoreline features which were level when first built are now found to be warped upward toward the northeast

in the northern part of the lake basins. The greatest tilt is measured in the highest (oldest) shorelines.

This progressive northward warping of the shorelines is due to a differential uplift of the earth's crust which most geologists believe to be caused by recovery of the crust after depression by the load of the glacial ice.

The tendency of portions of the earth's crust to approach a condition of balance leads to the establishment of a state of equilibrium in the crust known as "isostasy." The upwarping of strandlines in former glaciated areas has been cited by many geologists and geophysicists as one of the most convincing proofs of the principle of isostasy.

Mechanics of Warping

The determination of the underlying cause of warped shoreline features in Fennoscandia and North America has unfortunately been complicated by the fact that the glaciated areas correspond very closely with the Baltic Shield and the Canadian Shield, regions where the movements have been upward for a long period of time (see Plate I).

Scientists who explain the upwarping by isostatic rebound are opposed by those who believe that modern uplift is a continuation of movements which have characterized shield areas since Precambrian times. One of the adherents of the tectonic, endogenetic theory of land uplift in these areas summarized this concept by stating:

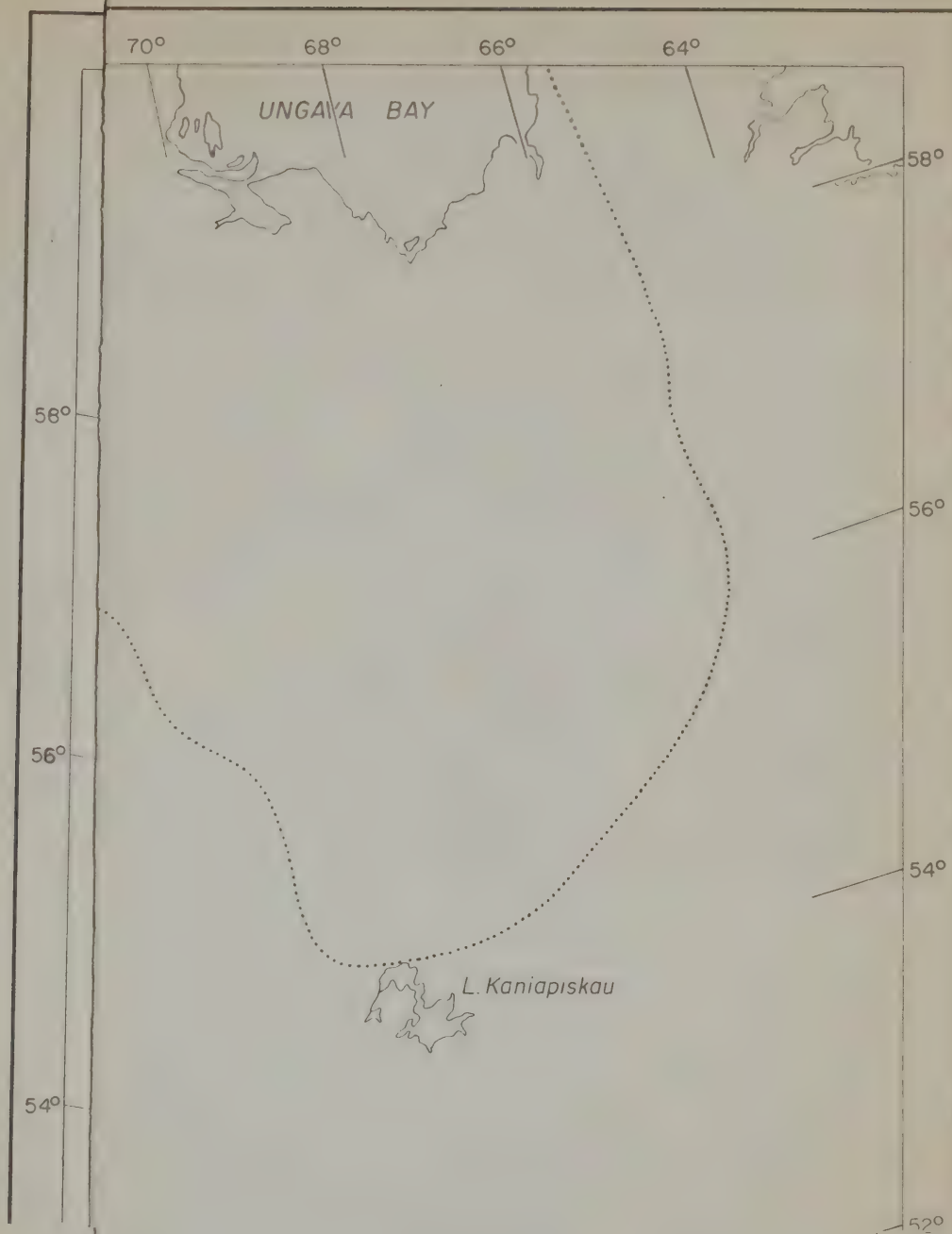
That both the Canadian and the Baltic shields were being elevated, clearly by tectonic forces, prior to the glacial period; and there are no grounds for maintaining that the very same forces did not play an important role in the recent movement of the shields (Lyustikh, 1960, p. 107).

The arguments of the proponents for a tectonic cause of uplift were answered, for the most part, by R. A. Daly (1940, p. 318) who declared:

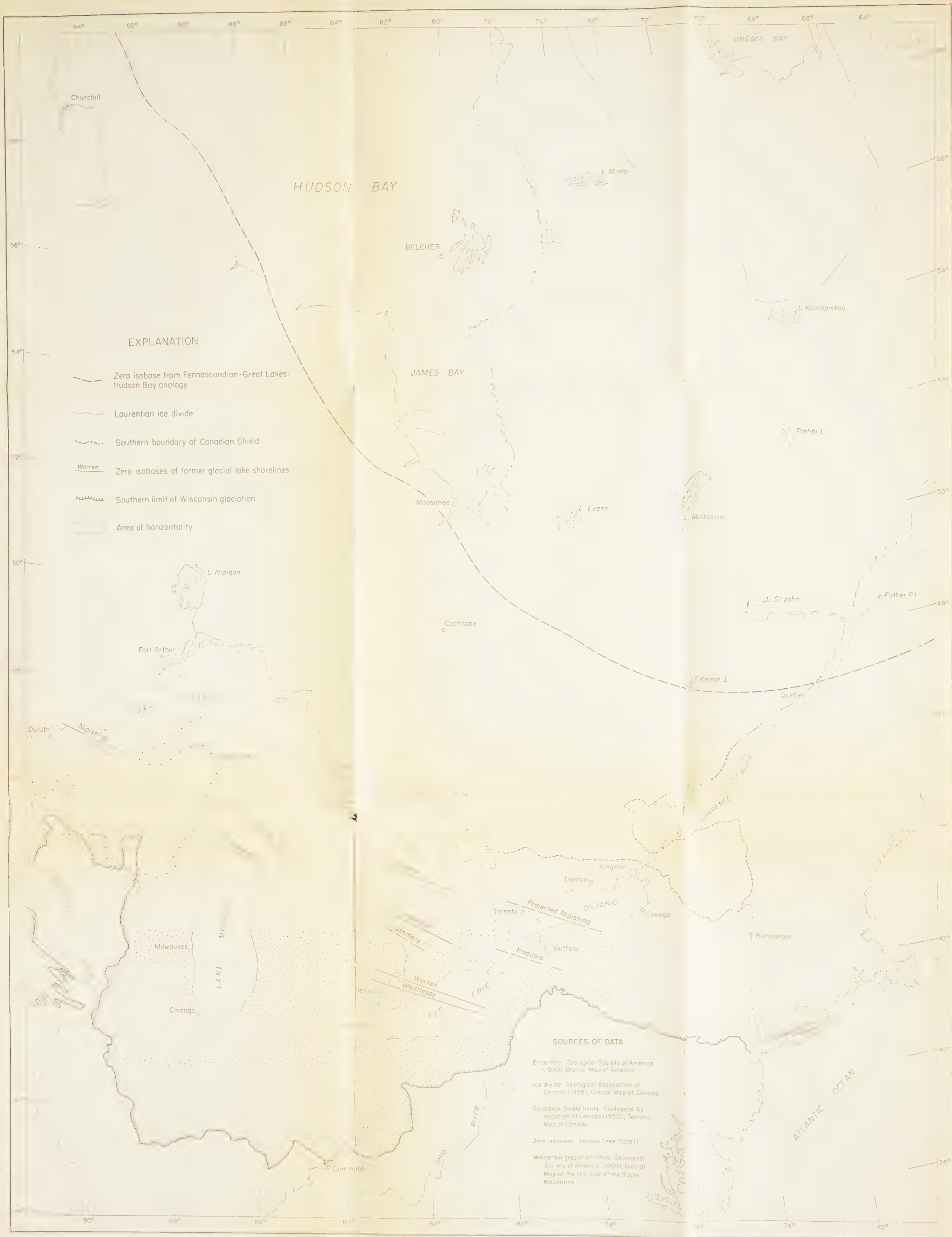
This hypothesis, that there is no connection between the upwarping and the deglaciation shows its full weakness when confronted with field statistics. We might conceive that the observed systematic warping in one or two tracts might be explained by independent epeirogenic movements, but it seems incredible that in a dozen regions the same type of warping should appear as mere accidental products of a stress system that has no vital connection with ice-loads. Yet basining and recoil have been demonstrated in as many widely separated tracts, each having been covered with heavy masses of ice recently melted away. In some, if not all, of the cases the melting and warping began less than 50,000 years ago. With few exceptions there are no signs that the lithosphere outside these tracts was simultaneously disturbed by anything like the same amount.

Isostasy

The first clear explanation of the theory of isostasy came out of an attempt to explain certain systematic errors in the calculations of the Trigonometrical Survey of India in the first half of the nineteenth century. When latitudes and longitudes derived from astronomical observations were compared with latitudes and longitudes of the same stations computed from the triangulation net, it was found that the relative position determined by triangulation failed to agree with the astronomical positions by an amount which could not be accounted for by surveying error.



REGION



FEATURES OF POSTGLACIAL LAND UPLIFT, GREAT LAKES-HUDSON BAY REGION

Scale 1:4,555,000

200 Miles

0 50 100 150 200 250 300 Km

1961

PLATE I

William F. MacLean

The determinations of astronomic positions are made with instruments containing leveling bubbles; therefore the vertical axis of the instrument is perpendicular to the geoid; i.e., the vertical axis, like a plumb line, is parallel to the direction of the force of gravity. On the other hand, triangulation positions are calculated on the basis of an assumed ellipsoid and yield geodetic latitudes and longitudes; perpendiculars to these coordinates are normal to the ellipsoid. The angle between the normal to the ellipsoid and the normal to the geoid is called "the deflection of the vertical."

It has long been known that a plumb line (normal to the geoid) is attracted by the mass of a mountain (Newton, 1728, p. 41) and that the magnitude of attraction is less than would be expected if the attractive force depended solely upon the mountain's mass as computed by its dimensions and the average density of rock (Bouguer, 1749, pp. 364-385; Maskelyne, 1775, pp. 500-508; DeZach, 1814, pp. V-XVI). However, it was not until 1855 when two papers dealing with this subject were published in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London that an explanation for this phenomenon was advanced.

John H. Pratt, an archdeacon of Calcutta, discussed the systematic error which had been revealed in a comparison of the astronomic and geodetic determinations of latitude of the terminal points of the northern division of the Meridional Arc of India. After proving that the geodetic calculations were not at fault, Pratt pointed out that the plumb line of

the astronomical observations must have been affected by the mass of the Himalayas and the Tibetan plateau. He computed the magnitude of the attraction by means of a laborious mechanical integration of the topographic effect of the mass of the Himalayas and the mountain region beyond. His computations showed that the difference between the calculated deflections of the plumb line at Kalianpur on the central plateau and Kaliana at the foot of the Himalayas was three times larger than the measured deflection.

Although Pratt (1855, p. 100) declared, "The conclusion, then, to which I come is, that there is no way of reconciling the difference between the error in latitude deduced in Colonel Everest's work and the amount I have assigned to deflection of the plumb line arising from attraction. ...;" the next paper in the same volume of the Transactions provided the answer to the problem.

George B. Airy, Astronomer Royal of Great Britain, heard the original presentation of Rev. Pratt's paper on December 7, 1854, and, in 1855, submitted a short paper to the Royal Society which expressed for the first time the principles of that condition of equilibrium in the earth's crust which was later called "isostasy." In his succinct paper Airy explained that the fluidity of the earth's interior was imperfect; that it was probably extremely viscous; that the material below the crust was of greater density than the crust; and that the strength of the crust was insufficient to support the weight of a table-land or to maintain a mountain range, although it would support local topographic features such as

a mountain. He (1855, p. 163) expressed his views of the underlying support for elevated regions of the earth's crust as follows:

I conceive that there can be no other support than that arising from the downward projection of a portion of the earth's light crust into the dense lava; ... the depth of its projection downwards being such that the increased power of floatation thus gained is roughly equal to the increase of weight above from the prominence of the table-land. ...

In regard to the effect on gravity of the elevated portion of the crust and its downward projection, Airy (1855, pp. 103-104) said:

Let us consider what will be its effect in disturbing the direction of gravity at different points in its proximity. It will be remarked that the disturbance depends on two actions; the positive attraction produced by the elevated table-land; and the diminution of attraction, or negative attraction, produced by the substitution of a certain amount of light crust (in the lower projection) for heavy lava.

The diminution of attractive matter below, produced by the substitution of light crust for heavy lava, will be sensibly equal to the increase of attractive matter above. The difference of the negative attraction of one and the positive attraction of the other, as estimated in the direction of a line perpendicular to that joining the centers of attraction of the two masses (or as estimated in a horizontal line), will be proportional to the difference of the inverse cubes of the distances of the attracted point from the two masses. ...

.....

The general conclusion then is this. In all cases, the real disturbance will be less than that found by computing the effects of the mountains, on the law of gravitation. Near to the elevated country, the part which is to be subtracted from the computed effect is a small proportion of the whole. At a distance from the elevated country, the part which is to be subtracted is so nearly equal to the whole, that the remainder may be neglected as insignificant, even in cases where the attraction of the elevated country itself would be considerable. But in our ignorance of the depth at which the downward immersion of the projecting crust into the lava takes place, we cannot give greater precision to the statement.

Airy recognized that isostasy may be incomplete—this is revealed in his statement (1855, p. 104) that:

In all the latter inferences, it is supposed that the crust is floating in a state of equilibrium. But in our entire ignorance of the modus operandi of the forces which have raised submarine strata to the tops of high mountains, we cannot insist on this as absolutely true. We know (from the reasoning above) that it will be so to the limits of breakage [strength of the crust] of the table-lands; but within those limits there may be some range of the conditions either way. It is quite possible that the immersion of the lower projection in the lava may be too great, as that the elevation may be too great; and in the former of these cases, the attraction would be negative.

Four years after Airy made public his theory of the equilibrium of the earth's crust, J. H. Pratt (1859) published a second paper on the deflection of the plumb line in India which supplies the rudiments for the hypothesis known as "Pratt's Theory of Isostasy."

Although Pratt admitted in the beginning of his paper that Airy's concept of a deficiency of mass beneath the mountain mass was correct, he rejected Airy's explanation of the phenomenon and proposed one of his own. Pratt (1859, pp. 746-747) states his objection to Airy's theory as follows:

This hypothesis appears, however, to be untenable for three reasons: (1) It supposes the thickness of the earth's solid crust to be considerably smaller than that assigned by the only satisfactory physical calculation made on the subject—those by Mr. Hopkins of Cambridge. He [Mr. Hopkins] considers the thickness to be about 800 or 1000 miles at least. (2) It assumes that this thin crust is lighter than the fluid on which it is suppose to rest. But we should expect that in becoming solid from the fluid state, it would contract from loss of heat and become heavier. (3) The same reasoning by which Mr. Airy makes it appear that every pro-

tubercance outside this thin crust must be accompanied by a protuberance inside, down into the fluid mass, would equally prove that wherever there was a hollow, as in deep seas, in the outer surface, there must be one also in the inner surface of the crust corresponding to it; thus leading to a law of varying thickness which no process of cooling would have produced.

Pratt (1859, p. 751) explained the deficiency of matter beneath the mountain mass in the following way:

... At the time when the earth had just ceased to be wholly fluid, the form must have been a perfect spheroid, with no mountains and valleys nor mountain hollows. As the crust formed, and grew continually thicker, contractions and expansions may have taken place in any of its parts, so as to depress and elevate the corresponding portions of the surface. If these changes took place chiefly in a vertical direction, then at any epoch a vertical line drawn down to a sufficient depth from any place in the surface will pass through a mass of matter which has remained the same in amount all through the changes. By the process of [thermal] expansion the mountains have been forced up, and the mass thus raised above the level has produced a corresponding attenuation of matter below. This attenuation is most likely very trifling, as it probably exists through a great depth. ...

The deflection of the plumb line caused by the mass of the Himalayas and the mountain region beyond was calculated by Pratt as 27.978 sec at Kaliaana (at the foot of the Himalayas) and the difference of the deflection of the plumb lines at Kaliaana and Kaliaanpur as 15.931 sec. He then computed the deflection as modified by the supposed attenuation below the mountains assuming that the level of attenuation extended down to a depth of 100, 300, 500 and 1000 miles. His figures showed that the deflection at Kaliaana, if the attenuation were extended down to the 100 mile level would be 1.538 sec and the difference between Kaliaana and Kaliaanpur would

be 1.602 sec. However, the measured difference of deflection at Kalia and Kaliaanpur was 5.236 sec which would require a depth of attenuation of almost 300 miles. The problems posed by these results led Pratt (1859, p. 762) to declare, "... No hypothesis of deficiency of matter below, which we can conceive will remove the anomaly. The disturbing cause must be elsewhere; ..."

Despite the fact that all of Pratt's concepts of the nature of the earth's crust (except that rock densities vary horizontally) have been disproved, his theory of isostasy (in greatly modified form) is still being used to reduce gravity anomalies and, indirectly, to compute the size and shape of the earth.

The concepts contained in the hypotheses of Airy and Pratt are the basis for several isostatic systems in use at the present time; the principal ones being the Pratt-Hayford system, the Airy-Heiskanen system and the Vening Meinesz system.

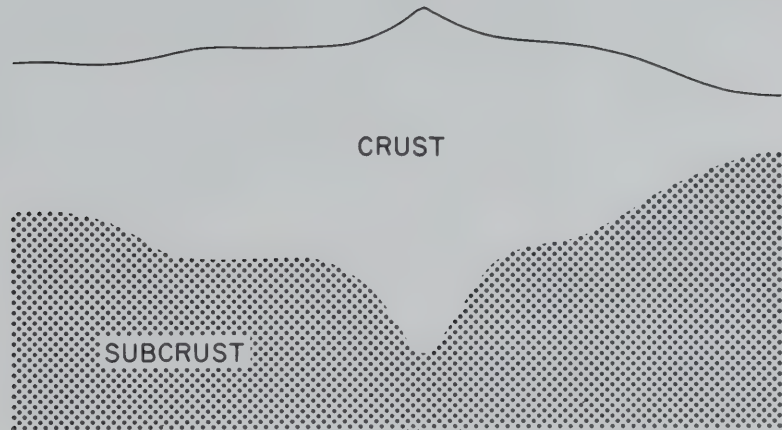
Figure 1 presents a schematic representation of the structure of the earth's crust based on the concepts of: (a) Airy, (b) Pratt (modified), and (c) a composite view—probably the closest approach to actual conditions in the crust.

ISOSTATIC RECOVERY

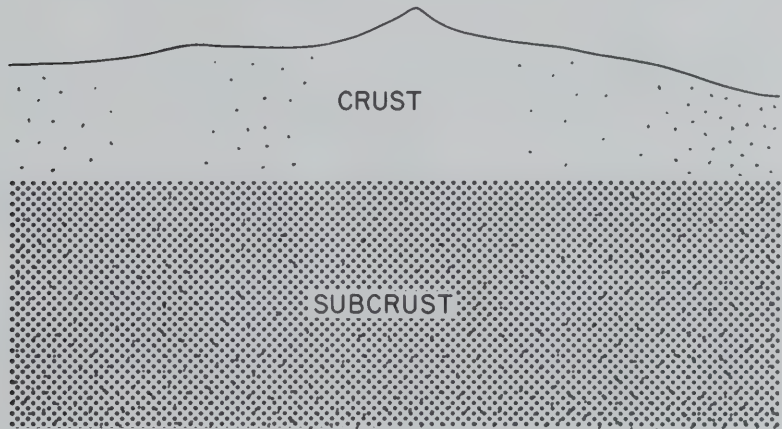
Glacial Loading

The Hudson Bay-Great Lakes area was covered by a continental glacier of Wisconsin age which was probably more than 3,000 meters (10,000 ft)

(a) Airy hypothesis



(b) Pratt (modified) hypothesis



(c) Combined hypothesis

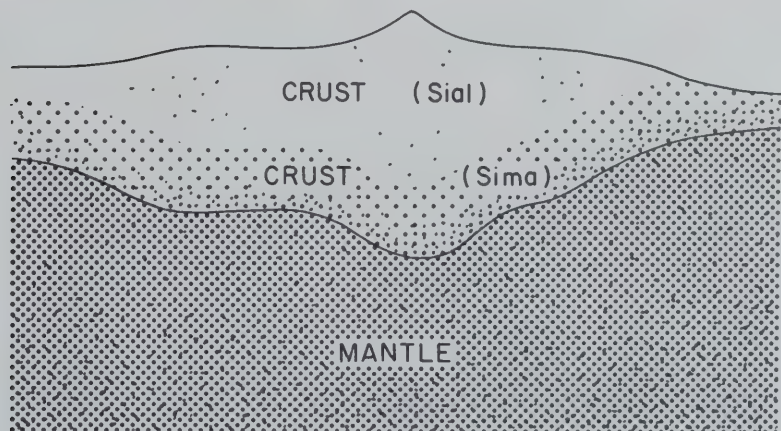


Fig. 1. Schematic diagrams of the earth's crust as implied by the theories of (a) Airy, (b) Pratt (modified), and (c) combined hypothesis. Rock density increases with increased density of stippling.

thick if an analogy may be made with the present ice sheets of Antarctica and Greenland. The maximum thickness of the Antarctic ice sheet is 4270 meters (14,000 ft), and that of Greenland is 3,300 meters (10,800 ft) (Bentley and Ostenso, 1961, p. 886; Holtzscherer and Robin, 1954, p. 196). The shape of the continental glacier was that of a flat-topped shield with relatively steep gradients along the margins.

The weight of this tremendous mass of ice piled on the earth's crust created a stress which exceeded the strength of the lithosphere, and, according to the concept of isostasy, the lithosphere sank into the weak layer below (the asthenosphere) until a condition of approximate equilibrium was again achieved. As the ice accumulated the increasing weight first caused the lithosphere to be deformed elastically in a basin-like shape; then, as the stress exceeded the strength of the crust and the asthenosphere, plastic flow occurred in the weak subcrustal layer.

The movement of plastic material from beneath the glacial area toward the ocean basins, the floors of which were rising due to the decreasing load caused by the progressive loss of water, was accompanied, according to many geologists (e.g., Jamieson, 1882, p. 461; Barrell, 1915, p. 13; Nansen, 1927, pp. 40, 42-44; Burger and Collette, 1958, pp. 227-240), by an upward bulging of the crust outside the area of depression. The formation of the bulge is explained by Nansen (1927, pp. 39-40) as follows:

It is, however, obvious that when, within a certain area, the crust is depressed by deposition of sediments [ice] on its surface, this will cause an outward flow of mobile matter in

the plastic substratum; but owing to the resistance caused by the great internal friction, this flow cannot extend over indefinite areas, but will at first be limited to the surrounding regions, where the surface will be somewhat elevated in a belt around the depressed area. The elevation will be highest near the latter, and will gradually decrease outward toward zero.

The existence of a noticeable peripheral bulge has been denied by other workers who pointed out that the high bending strength of the lithosphere would preserve a bulge to the present time, and that a permanent tilt should be recorded in the postglacial beaches south of their "hinge lines"—neither condition has been found. However, the apparent lack of a bulge may be explained if the peripheral bulge is so low and broad that it cannot be detected by present methods of field measurement.

An estimate of the maximum extent and magnitude of the depression of the land due to glacial loading may be gained from an examination of the limits of the Wisconsin glaciation as shown in Plate I and from a consideration of the simple formula

$$D = t \frac{d_i}{d_a} \quad (1)$$

where D = depth of depression, t = thickness of ice, d_i = density of ice, and d_a = density of the asthenosphere.

The Wisconsin continental glacier extended from its center in the latitude of Hudson Bay to the southern boundary of the Great Lakes Lobe which terminated in the southern half of the States of Illinois, Indiana and Ohio. It must be realized, however, that the limits of the crustal

depression did not coincide with the southern limits of glaciation. The depression was limited by the thickness of ice necessary to overcome the strength of the underlying crust. Near the edge of the ice sheet the ice was probably not thick enough to provide the necessary weight for depression; whereas, farther in from the edge, the ice was thick enough for its weight to cause elastic deformation, and still farther north the weight of the ice exceeded the strength of the lithosphere and asthenosphere so that plastic as well as elastic deformation occurred. With sufficient time the lithosphere under the glacier would be depressed until hydrostatic equilibrium was established.

At the center of the ice sheet, an approximate depth of depression may be calculated from the formula $D = t \frac{d_i}{d_a}$, if the following assumptions are made: (a) the ice thickness was c. 10,000 ft, (b) the ice density was c 0.92, (c) the density of the athenosphere is approximately 3.3, and (d) the isostatic adjustment was complete. With these qualifications, the depth of depression at the glacial center would be on the order of 2,800 ft, decreasing in magnitude southward as the ice thinned. The profile of depression was probably the inverse profile of the glacier surface.

Glacial Unloading

The process of glacial unloading began after the regimen of the Wisconsin glacier had changed from a positive to a negative balance. The retreat of the glacier's terminus, as well as the thinning of the

ice sheet by melting of its upper surface, brought about the reversal of those processes described in "Glacial Loading." The first reaction of the depressed crust to the decreased weight of ice was an elastic recoil of the crust; this, in turn, was followed by uplift due to plastic flow in the substratum. Plastic deformation occurred when the melt waters of the glacier returned to the ocean, and as the load on the land decreased, that on the ocean bottom became greater and greater—once again disturbing the condition of hydrostatic equilibrium—which caused a reversal of flow of material in the asthenosphere.

The ice front retreated about 140 miles north of its southernmost extension (crossing the southern boundary of the Great Lakes watershed) before glacial margin lakes began to form between the southern moraines and the ice front. The glacier continued to retreat in a series of partial retreats and advances to the time of the Cary-Port Huron interval when, according to J. L. Hough (1958, p. 287), the ice front in the Great Lakes region probably extended from the vicinity of Oswego, New York, to the neighborhood of Beaver Bay, Wisconsin, on Lake Superior; passing near Gravenhurst, Ontario, the northern tip of the Saugeen Peninsula, the Straits of Mackinac, Escanaba, Michigan, and the southern end of the Keweenaw Peninsula.

During the time that the glacier was receding c 440 miles in a period of 2000-3000 years (Hough, 1958, p. 278) elastic and plastic deformation were acting to restore the southern glaciated areas to their pre-

glacial elevations. The amount of land uplift which occurred during this period may answer the point brought up by Sherman Moore (1948, p. 708) when he declared: "... The ice of the Wisconsin glaciation extended almost to the Ohio River, yet the old beaches show no differential movement below the hinge lines which cut across the Great Lakes."

The old beaches failed to show differential movement because the land south of the "hinge lines" had almost completely resumed its pre-glacial elevation before beaches were formed. This serves to emphasize the fact that the amount of land uplift revealed by differential warping of glacial lake strandlines since ice retreat is a minimum value and represents an unknown proportion of the total recovery from glacial loading.

The process of glacial lake beach formation has been used to explain two different concepts of the continuity of land uplift. Proponents of both views agree that the strong beaches were formed either during periods of relatively constant relationships between the water level and the land, or during periods of slightly rising water levels. However, opinions differ as to the way in which the constant relationships were maintained.

The more widely-held opinion is that the relationships were constant and shoreline features were formed during times when land uplift had stopped so that stability prevailed. When land uplift resumed, the shoreline features were warped in those areas where isostatic adjustment was not complete.

The second viewpoint, that shoreline features were formed during periods of continuous uplift when the rise of water level kept pace with the uplift of the land, has been summarized by the Norwegian scientist and explorer, F. Nansen (1927, pp. 47-48), as follows:

The now raised post-Glacial strand-lines, beaches, and terraces of the formerly glaciated regions, have obviously been formed during periods of nearly constant relation between sea-level and land, or when the sea was rising slightly relatively to the land. In an earlier paper [1922] the author has tried to prove that such conditions were not created by any break in the upheaval, still less by any new depression of the land in late-Glacial or post-Glacial time, as assumed by most previous authors. Owing to the lag in the isostatic adjustment there must obviously have been so great an excess of "buoyancy" in the crust during the period of its upheaval that any temporary pause in the melting of the ice-cap, or even a temporary increase of it, cannot have stopped the uplift of the land, and still less have produced a temporary subsidence.

The conditions for the incision of strand-lines, or the formation of marked beaches or terraces, have existed during periods when the sea-level rose at the same rate as the coast or slightly faster, and the coast-line remained more or less stable sufficiently long. ...

The progressive return of the earth's crust to approximately its pre-Wisconsin elevation is manifested by the northeastward shift of the areas of horizontality of the strong beaches (Whittlesey, Warren, Iroquois, Algonquin and Nipissing) in the Great Lakes region. Plate I shows the location of the zero isobase of each of the five strong beaches, the Whittlesey beach is the oldest (c 12,700 yrs B.P.). Each beach was horizontal when it was formed; subsequent upwarping northeast of the zero isobase indicates that uplift continued here long after it had ceased southwest of the zero isobase.

According to one concept, after upwarping of the older shoreline northeast of the zero isobase occurred, crustal movement must have stopped in order that the shoreline features of the succeeding lake be formed; if Nansen's concept is followed, the rates of uplift and rise in the lake's water level must have been synchronous in order for shoreline features to form. After the formation of the shoreline features of the younger lake, upwarping either began again or proceeded faster than the rise in water level, depending on which concept is followed, so that the shoreline features of the younger lake were warped. This process occurred for each of the glacial lake shorelines.

The last distinct postglacial strand line to show upwarping is the Nipissing, which ended about 3,200 years before the present time (Farrand, 1960, p. 125, Table III). The area of horizontality of the Nipissing beach outlines that portion of the Great Lakes area where pre-glacial elevations have been restored to approximately their former altitudes. The degree of restoration is probably not complete due to the thick overburden of glacial drift which covers the glaciated region south of the Canadian Shield.

The drift, composed of material carried to the area by the four continental glaciers, has an average thickness of about 300 feet in southern Michigan and northern Indiana (Leverett and Taylor, 1915, p. 61) and a maximum thickness of more than 700 feet in Michigan (Aker, 1938). The thickness of the drift deposited in the Great Lakes basins should

also be hundreds of feet. Although the portion of the total drift thickness contributed by the Wisconsin glacier is unknown, it was certainly appreciable and its weight would probably keep the bedrock from attaining its full pre-Wisconsin height.

The above situation in the Great Lakes region may be contrasted with the one which exists in the Canadian Shield—the source area of the drift. Material from the Shield was removed by the ice and deposited elsewhere, making lighter the load on the underlying bedrock. Because the weight which formerly existed in the central area of glaciation is now distributed either in the outer areas of glaciation or carried away to the oceans, isostatic adjustment, when complete, should allow the Canadian Shield bedrock surfaces to become higher in elevation than they were before glaciation.

III. DETECTION AND MAGNITUDE OF UPLIFT

Land uplift in Fennoscandia and the Great Lakes region has been measured quantitatively by three methods: (a) by measuring the warping of former shorelines, (b) by comparing water-level records over a long period of time, and (c) by precise leveling. In addition, gravity measurements and earthquake intensities have been used in a qualitative way to both affirm and deny the existence of residual depression and consequent modern uplift in these areas.

Warped Glacial Lake Shoreline Features

The most positive method of demonstrating the existence of postglacial uplift is by measuring the warping of the depositional and erosional land forms produced by the action of the former lake surface. Due to the length of time in which the upwarping action was able to act, the upwarp of the shoreline features amounts to tens or hundreds of feet as they are traced from south to north.

The shoreline features used to determine the amount of uplift include: beaches and bars (deposits of sand or pebbles accumulated by on-shore and along-shore waves and currents), deltas, wave-cut and wave-built benches, wave-cut cliffs and outlet channels. These glacial lake features are now found at a higher elevation and farther inland than present lake features.

In order to cover the greatest area possible, the majority of the investigators who mapped the shoreline features of former lakes used altimeters or hand levels to determine their elevations. The inaccuracies inherent in the instruments and methods coupled with the difficulties of determining the elevation of the former water surface—i.e., of correlating wave-cut features with wave-built features of lakes whose surfaces varied several feet in elevation from year to year—result in elevations which are probably accurate from ± 5 to ± 10 feet. Although some elevations were determined by spirit level or by hand level from near-by known elevations, the uncertainties of measuring features formed by a fluctuating water surface remain; thus making an accuracy of better than ± 5 feet rather unlikely (Robinson, 1908, pp. 348-358).

Gilbert's (1890, p. 368) method of representing a warped plane was followed by G. De Geer (1892, p. 457), the Swedish glacial geologist, who connected points of equal deformation with a line which he called an "isobase." The isobase of zero deformation which marks the boundary between the area of horizontality of the glacial lake features and its area of warping was called the "hinge line" by J. W. Goldthwait (1908, p. 473) and subsequent workers. However, the term "hinge line" connotes a definite demarcation between the horizontal and warped areas which does not actually exist; as Farrand (1960, p. 9) has recently pointed out, "the apparent hinging effect shown in most profiles of former water planes (...) is produced by the exaggeration of vertical scale which is neces-

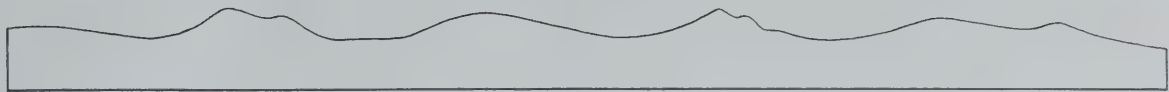
sary in such diagrams." Farrand (1960, p. 90) later called attention to the fact that the "isobase of zero uplift for the Nipissing beach ... is difficult to determine within 10 or 20 miles because of the extremely low slope of the water plane as it approaches horizontality [1:13,900]."

The difficulty of locating the position of the intersection of the warped and horizontal portions of glacial lake shorelines having gradients ranging from c 1:1,400 to 1:14,000 may justify substituting the term "transition zone" for "hinge line."

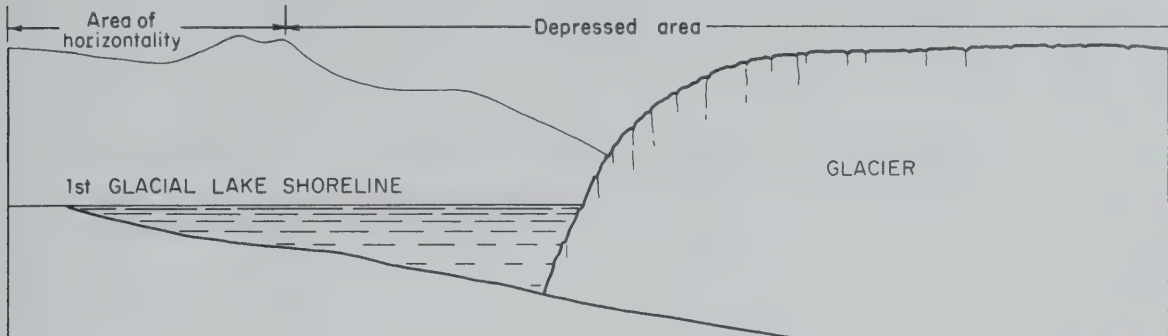
This problem of illustrating on a vertical profile the change from horizontal to upwarped lake shoreline features is one facet of the overall problem of representing in two dimensions a phenomenon (occurring on an ellipsoidal earth) which has extremely large horizontal dimensions when these dimensions are compared to its vertical extent.

The extreme shallowness of the depression caused by the continental glacier at its maximum may be illustrated by comparing the southward extent of the ice sheet of 1,300 miles with the possible depression of the earth's crust of 2,800 feet at the center of the glacier. The average gradient in this case would be c 1:2,450 or the slope angle would be c 1 min 24 sec.

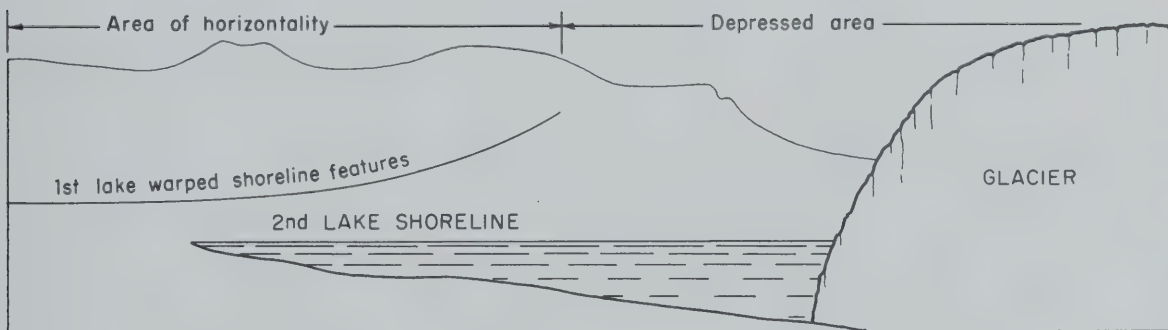
Distortions induced by the grossly exaggerated vertical profile necessary to show the relationships of horizontal and uplifted areas of shoreline features have led to the use of the term "doming" or "updoming" to describe the action of the land recovering from depression. An examination of Fig. 2 reveals that the "doming" is illusory, caused by the up-



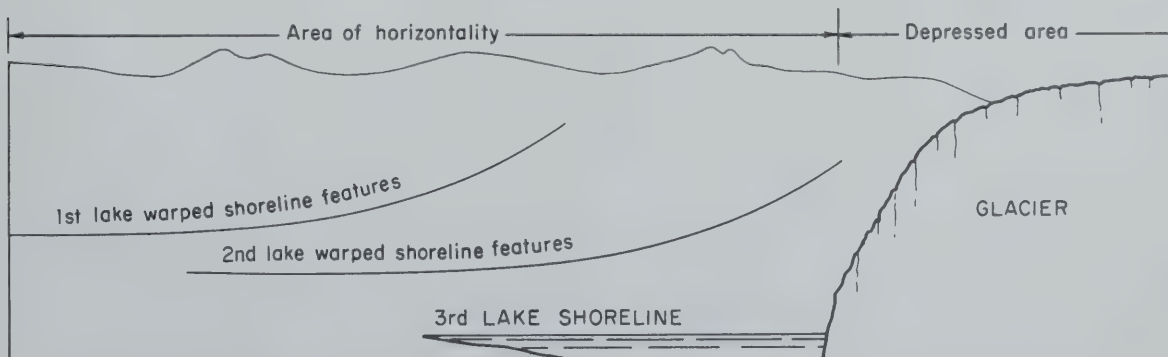
(a) Land sky line profile before glaciation.



(b) First glacial lake stage.



(c) Continued retreat of glacier— uplift of shorelift features.



(d) Continued recovery of land and warping of 2nd shoreline.

Fig. 2. Schematic diagrams showing recovery of the depressed regions and upwarping of shoreline features.

warping of sections of former shorelines. The crust which was depressed under the weight of the ice rises only until it assumes its preglacial elevation; the elevation of the land at the center of the ice sheet may be higher after isostatic recovery than it was before glaciation (see p. 31).

The glacial lakes were formed in topographical low areas of the regions depressed by the weight of the ice sheet; usually (as shown by the attitudes of former beaches) the lakes extended from non-depressed regions to the depressed regions in front of the glacier. The shorelines reached from an area of horizontality, across an area free of ice but still depressed due to the lag in isostatic recovery, to the glacier front. After a period of time in which the glacier retreated to a new position, another lake formed at a lower elevation than the first; isostatic recovery occurred and the depressed area rose to approximately its former elevation; carrying with it the former shoreline. Thus the former depressed areas are now essentially horizontal, although part of the former shorelines are now upwarped.

The positions of the isobases of zero deformation shown on Plate I demonstrates the fact that the zero isobases are almost parallel with each other and that the locations of the zero isobases show successively younger isobases to be northeast of the older ones.

Isobases found on maps depicting postglacial uplift of the land (Hough, 1958, Figs. 34, 42, 51; Flint, 1957, Figs. 14-1, 14-2, 14-5, 14-6, 14-9; Daly, 1934, Fig. 64; Sauramo, 1939, Fig. 1, etc.) are regional

isobases, and, by smoothing out irregularities, show the broad gently curving trends of deformation.' However, detailed studies of the local trends of the isobases have revealed that the amount of uplift, as well as the direction of the trend, was influenced by geological and topographical features (De Geer, 1892, p. 458; Leverett and MacLachlan, 1934, p. 550; Sauramo, 1939, pp. 15, 21-23; MacLachlan, 1939, pp. 63, 80-82).

MacLachlan (1939, pp. 80-81) studied the Glacial Lake Warren shoreline and found that:

... The water plane of Lake Warren was not only deformed by northeastward tilting as indicated by straight line isobases connecting widely separated points, but there was also local deformation of the area along these isobases of regional tilt and this local deformation reflects the major details of buried structures.

In addition, the spacing of the regional isobases indicates that the former shorelines were not tilted as flat planes, but were warped upward into gentle curves. The progressively closer spacing of the isobases to the northeast shows that the concave profile of the shorelines became steeper to the northeast, and, consequently, that the rates of uplift increased in that direction.

Average rates of uplift for six shorelines in the Great Lakes region (Whittlesey, Warren, Grassmere, Algonquin, Iroquois and Nipissing) are given in Table 1. The rates were found by measuring from the zero isobase to the highest definite isobase of the shoreline being measured. The average rates do not illustrate the progressive steepening of the shoreline profiles to the northeast, e.g., the average rate of uplift for

TABLE 1

RATES OF UPLIFT OF FORMER BEACHES

Former Beach	Age Approximate Years, B.P.	Modern Lake Basin	Measured		Average Measured Rate, feet/miles	Average Rate/100 Miles, feet/miles	Source
			From	To			
Nipissing	3200	Huron	Walkerton, Ontario	Field, Ontario	95/173	55/100	Leverett & Taylor, 1915, pp. 458-459 Hough, 1958, Fig. 51
	4100	Superior	Wakefield, Michigan, approximate	c. 4 mi N of St. Ignace, Is- land, Ontario	95/194	49/100	Farrand, 1960, Pl. IV
Iroquois	8800 9600	Ontario	East Gaines, New York	Pancake Hill, Ontario	300/82	366/100	Coleman, 1936, Map 45f
Algonquin	9500 10000	Huron	1.5 mi S of Ruth, Mich- igan	3 mi S of Lit- tle Current, Ontario	408/151	270/100	Hough, 1958, pp. 215, 223 Leverett & Taylor, 1915, Pl. XX, p. 411
Grassmere	10200 10500	Huron	2 mi N of Lexington, Michigan	Northline of Sanilac Co., Michigan	50/25	200/100	Leverett & Taylor, 1915, Pl. XX
Warren	12200 12700	St. Clair Erie	Conneaut, Ohio	Spring Brook, New York	140/121	116/100	Leverett & Taylor, 1915, Pl. XVIII
Whittlesey	12700 13200	St. Clair Erie	Ashtabula, Ohio	West Alden, New York	182/140	130/100	Leverett & Taylor, 1915, Pl. XVIII

the Nipissing shoreline in the Superior basin is 0.49 ft per mi; whereas, Farrand (1960, p. 56) finds that: "It is horizontal south of Knife River, Minnesota, but slopes 0.38 ft per mi in the Tofte-Lutsen area, 0.42 ft per mi near Grand Portage, Minnesota, and 0.50 ft per mi in the Nipigon, Ontario, area."

Rates of uplift computed from the elevations of former shoreline features are based on quantities which could be the result of up to 13,000 years of land uplift; furthermore, the differences in elevation between the zero isobases and the isobases of maximum deformation are measured in tens or hundreds of feet. The magnitude of these quantities is great enough for elevations determined by ordinary methods of spirit leveling (corrected for meteorological effects and for the fluctuation of the modern lake datum) to be used in the calculation of accurate rates of past uplift.

This situation contrasts greatly with the determination of modern rates of uplift by means of precise leveling; or by means of water-level gage records; where the period of record is measured in tens of years and the magnitude of uplift is in hundredths of a foot, in tenths of a foot, and, in some cases, in feet. Under these circumstances, errors in the determination of elevations which would be insignificant in the calculation of rates of past uplift constitute such a large proportion of the total amount of modern rates of uplift that the modern figures could be valueless.)

Water-level Gage Comparisons

Modern land uplift values have been calculated from comparisons of water-level gage records (tide gage records and lake-level gage records) taken over a period of 50-100 years. The principle forming the basis for this type of computation is that of "water leveling;" which, as defined by the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, is:

A method of obtaining relative elevations by observing heights with respect to the surface of a body of still water.

The surface of a body of still water, as of a lake, is a level surface (equipotential surface), and the relative elevations of objects along its shores may be obtained by taking the differences of their heights with respect to the surface of the water. ... (Mitchell, 1948, p. 46).

The comparison of heights taken from tide gage records furnished the necessary data for the computation of rates of uplift around the Gulf of Bothnia and the Gulf of Finland in Fennoscandia, and differences in elevation of lake-level gage stations have supplied information necessary for the calculation of rates of uplift in the Great Lakes region and the lake district of Finland.

Tide gage records are used not only to provide a direct means of calculating rates of uplift, but are also used indirectly when uplift rates are determined by precise leveling. Mean sea level (MSL), the standard datum for elevations, is established by means of tide observations taken over a number of years; in addition to providing the standard datum, primary tide gage stations are used as starting and "tie-in" points in the precise leveling net (Marmer, 1951, p. 67; Hayford, 1922, pp. 131-132).

Great Lakes rates of land uplift are also influenced by this indirect function of tide gages determining mean sea level if absolute rates of movement are desired—lake-level gage records alone allow only relative rates of uplift to be found. Tide gage stations in the New York City area (Sandy Hook, New Jersey; Governors Island, New York; Fort Hamilton, New York; and the Battery, New York City) have been the starting points for level lines used to establish elevations in the Great Lakes region; therefore tidal records of the New York City area are important in the determination of Great Lakes absolute rates of uplift.

WATER-LEVEL GAGES

The component parts of the water-level gage station illustrated in Fig. 3 are common to almost all permanent installations. A recording device is mounted on a stable platform situated over a stilling well which is connected to open water by a pipe of relatively small diameter. The stilling well with its restricted inlet eliminates short period fluctuations without affecting the recording of the water level. The recorder consists of two basic parts, one is a clock mechanism to move a roll of paper under a stylus at a uniform speed, and the other is a height registering mechanism with a float which, through a linkage of float-line and gear train, moves the stylus a distance which is proportional to the change in water level.

An index (zero) mark on the stable platform is connected by a double line of spirit leveling to three or more permanent bench

- (a) Bench mark
- (b) Gage house
- (c) Water-level recorder
- (d) Stable platform
- (e) Index
- (f) Counterweight
- (g) Float line
- (h) Float
- (i) Stilling well
- (j) Inlet pipe
- (k) Pulley

Note: Stylus and clockwork-roller mechanisms not shown.

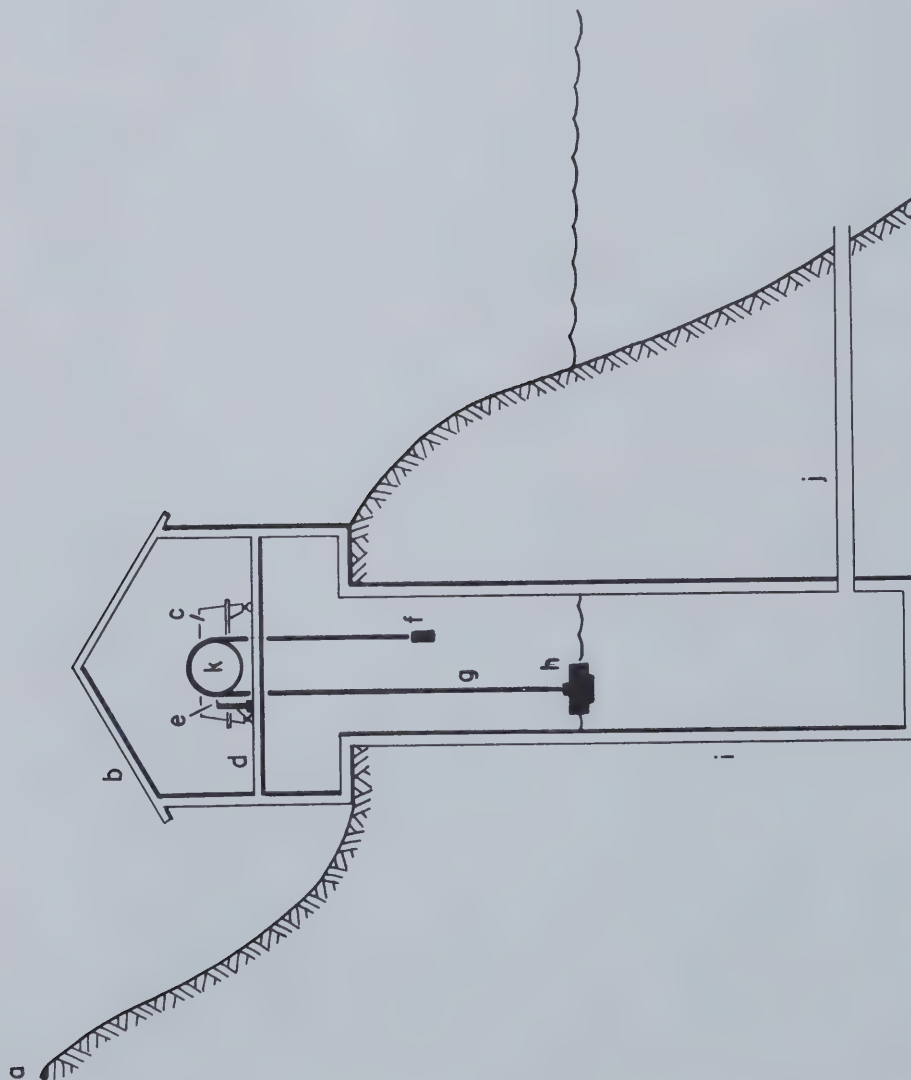


Fig. 3. Schematic diagram of a water-level gage installation.
(In part, after Stevens, n.d.; Hela, 1953.)

marks. At regular intervals the leveling from bench marks to gage is repeated in order to detect any changes in the zero of the gage. Periodically, an observer, using a staff gage or electric contact tape, measures the distance from the index mark to the surface of the water; he records this figure and the time so that during tabulation of the record the automatic gage record may be correlated with the elevation of the index mark.

After the automatic gage roll has been removed from the recorder, hourly elevations are tabulated from the continuous curve of the recorder roll in order to provide a basis for computing daily, monthly and yearly mean water-level elevations.

Water leveling, the determination of mean sea level, and the calculation of rates of land uplift from water-level records are all based on the tacit assumption that the mean elevation of the water surface as determined by the record from the gage station represents the actual mean elevation of the body of water. This assumption would be very nearly true if the surface of the water body were a level surface (equipotential surface), and if the tabulated values of the water elevation were representative samples of the level surface elevations. However, the water surface is rarely, if ever, a level surface and its elevation, as revealed by water-level gage records, is affected by a number of factors whose influence must be removed or rendered insignificant if the gage readings are to be an accurate representation of the actual elevation of the water surface.

Some of the factors which disturb the level of the surface of a body of water or distort its true elevation, i.e., meteorological effects, operator and instrument errors, benchmark and/or gage movements, are common to both sea and lake surfaces; whereas, other influences, i.e., the eustatic rise of sea level, density changes and tides, are important only in computing elevations of the sea surface.

Tide Gage Comparisons

The principle underlying the calculation of rates of land uplift by means of tide gage comparisons is a simple one—the elevations of certain fixed points along a coastline (tide gage index marks) are compared with a plane of zero elevation (mean sea level) over a long period of time. If the differences between the zero plane (MSL) and the elevations of the tide gage marks remain constant, no uplift has taken place; on the other hand, if the differences increase with respect to the zero plane, uplift has occurred; and the rate of uplift is found by means of the equation for a straight line

$$y = mx + b \quad (2)$$

where y = the differences in the elevation of the tide gage; x = the time in years; b = uplift at the start of the time series; and m = the angle coefficient, the value of the rate of yearly land uplift.

The principle is a simple one, but difficulty arises in practice due to the problem of establishing the zero plane; that is, the true mean sea level. Because the factors, e.g., meteorological effects,

tides, operator and instrument errors, influencing the determination of mean sea level vary their effects from one time to another, as well as from one geographical location to another, they must be discovered, their magnitudes computed, and their effects removed from the recorded data before an accurate mean can be found.

Requirements as to the degree of accuracy which is necessary for establishing mean sea level varies for different purposes—due to the very small magnitude of modern land uplift, about 0.008 ft/100 mi/yr (see page 91), the accuracy requirements which are necessary when dealing with this phenomenon are stringent; thus the effects of the disturbing elements must be removed until their residual influence is very small.

Tides

One of the factors producing the greatest deviation of the sea's surface from that of a theoretical equipotential surface is the tide, which is defined as: "The periodic rising and falling of the water that results from the gravitational attraction of the moon and sun acting upon the rotating earth." (Schureman, 1949, p. 36). The equipotential surface necessary for use as a datum plane is approached when the effects of the tide and meteorological factors are eliminated by using tide gage records to determine the mean sea level.

Because tide-producing forces vary on a daily, monthly and yearly basis, it is necessary that tidal records be taken over a number of

years before mean sea level can be established. H. A. Marmer (1951, pp. 63-64) of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey states that:

A period of 19 years is generally considered as constituting a full tidal cycle, for during this period of time the more important of the tidal variations will have gone through complete cycles. It is therefore customary to regard results derived from 19 years of tide observations as constituting mean values. ...

If the mean level of the sea remained constant over long periods of time and if the coast were absolutely stable, we might expect sea level at any place determined from one 19-year series to be the same as that derived from another such series even if separated by a number of years. Apparently, however, this is not the case, and for precise purposes it is therefore necessary to specify the particular epoch used in the determination of mean sea level. ...

For New York Harbor there are available 56 years of observations, from 1893 through 1948. This permits three 19-year series, 1893-1911, 1912-1930 and 1930-1948, the last two having the year 1930 in common. For the series 1912-30, sea level referred to a number of bench marks in the vicinity of the tide station was 0.09 foot higher than for the series of 1893-1911; for 1930-1948 it was 0.29 foot higher than for 1893-1911, and 0.20 foot higher than for 1912-1930.

It would appear from the above quotation that mean sea level derived from periods of 19 or more years would eliminate almost all of the disturbing influences produced by the tides and meteorological effects; however, the gradual rise of mean sea level at tide stations outside areas of known crustal movements points to an eustatic change in sea level; and, considering local areas, to residual meteorological effects of long period climatic changes.

A consideration of long period variations in mean sea level is important in the calculation of rates of land uplift by precise leveling where re-leveling is carried out 40-80 or more years after the initial

precise leveling. The long period rise in sea level may have two effects—both causing a relative subsidence of the land—if compensation for the rise is not carried out. In the case of tide gages and accompanying bench marks which are located in an area of land uplift, such as Fenno-scandia, the failure to correct for long period changes in mean sea level will cause the rate of land uplift to appear to be too small because the zero reference plane is rising at the same time that the land is being uplifted. The rate of rise of mean sea level must be added to the rate of land uplift if the true rate of crustal movement is to be determined.

The second effect of apparent subsidence occurs when a series of bench marks are re-leveled after a number of years, and the calculation of elevations is made on the assumption that mean sea level remains constant over long periods of time. In this case, the zero datum is assumed to have the same relation to the tide gage bench mark for the second leveling as it had for the first leveling; whereas, it is actually closer to the bench mark. Because the zero datum plane is held constant, it appears that the bench marks are subsiding; although, no actual crustal movement has occurred. This effect of apparent subsidence may be illustrated by an example based on information contained in the quotation taken from H. A. Marmer (see page 46).

Mean sea level in New York Harbor rose 0.29 foot from 1902 (mid-point 1893-1911 series) to 1939 (mid-point 1930-1948 series)—if a line of precise levels were run in 1902 and again in 1939, and if it were assumed

that no change had taken place in the elevation of mean sea level; then the bench marks would appear to have subsided 0.29 foot in 37 years, or at a rate of about 0.78 foot per 100 years.

Meteorological Effects

It has long been known that the level of the sea is affected not only by astronomical tides, but also by the force of the wind which blows across the surface, causing a piling up of water on the lee shore and a lowering of water level on the windward shore. Although this effect of the wind has been known since ancient times, it was not until 1804 that the influence of barometric pressure on the level of the sea was demonstrated. In 1804, a Swedish physician named Schulten correlated changes in barometric pressure with variations in the height of water level in the Baltic Sea and discovered that at a given locality the greatest increase in height of the water corresponded to the greatest depression of the mercury column of the barometer. He found that the maximum variation of 2.5 inches of the mercury column was the equivalent of a change in sea level of $\frac{3}{4}$ inches, which corresponds very closely to the theoretical ratio of 1:13.21. Schulten's measurements together with his observation that the rise in sea level always preceded the drop in the mercury column, led him to conclude that the change in level was due "to the unequal pressure of the atmosphere upon different parts of the surface; ..." (M'Culloch, 1845, p. 269).

Despite the fact that the term "meteorological effects" could be applied to changes in water level brought about by local additions of water to the sea by rain and river discharge, as well as by density differences caused by dilution of the salinity of the sea and temperature changes, it usually includes only the effects of wind and barometric pressure (see Fig. 4a and 4b).

Wind Slope

As wind blows over a water surface an interfacial stress is produced by the viscous drag of the moving air on the water and by the form drag of the waves and wavelets (Montgomery, 1952, p. 132). This stress causes the water to move in a general downwind direction until it reaches shallow water or the shore where a piling up of the water creates a slope of the water surface. The surface slope, in turn, creates a gradient or gravity current which flows beneath, and in opposite direction to, the wind-drift current.

Various authors have labeled this wind-induced surface slope (after corrections have been made for the barometric effect) a "wind slope," a "wind denivellation," a "wind tide," a "wind effect," a "windstau," and wind "set-up." The term "wind slope" best describes this phenomenon; as "wind denivellation," while the most precise term is probably too long to be commonly used; "wind tide" has the connotation of periodic rising and falling due to astronomical influences; "wind effect" is not definite enough; "windstau" when translated as an "accumulation" or "banking up"

EXPLANATION

Figure 4a. - $S_m = S_b + S_w$

Figure 4b. - $S = S_{md} + S_{mb}$

Where:

S_m = Meteorological effect

S_b = Barometric pressure effect

S_w = Wind slope

S = Set-up

S_{md} = Meteorological effect at gage A

S_{mb} = Meteorological effect at gage B

H = Average equipotential waterdepth

L = Distance between gages

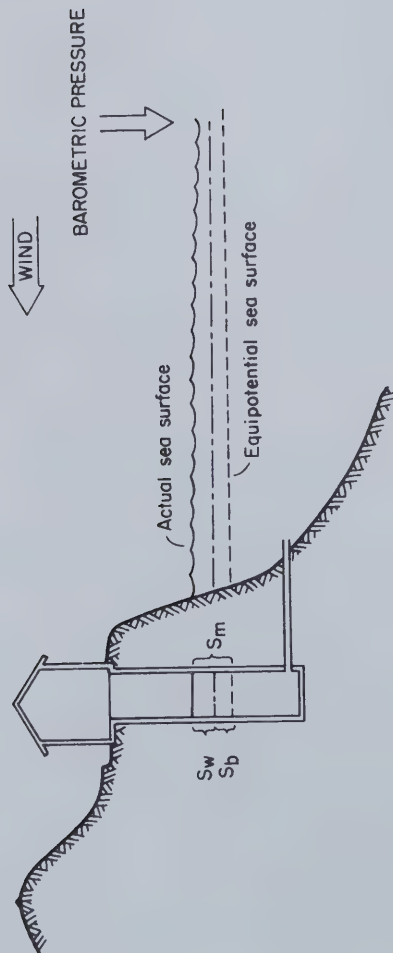


Fig. 4a. Effect of wind and barometric pressure on the surface of the sea.

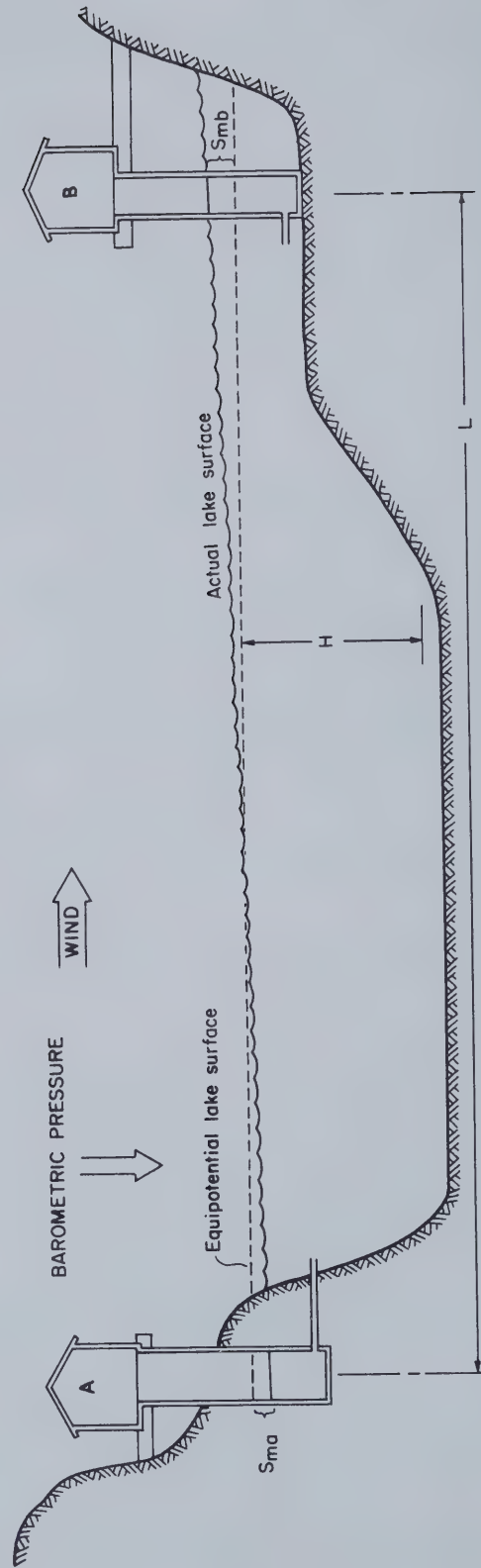


Fig. 4b. Set-up (total displacement of lake water surface from level) at lake-level gages.

by the wind has the proper meaning but is not as precise as "wind slope;" and the engineering term "set-up" is best used as

... either the displacement of the water surface at the leeward end of the channel with respect to the undisturbed level of the water or the difference of the displacement of the water levels at the windward and leeward ends of the channel, that at the windward end being negative (Keulegan, 1951, p. 365).

Two equations taken from G. H. Keulegan (1951, pp. 360, 576) illustrate the relationship which exists between the wind and a body of water when a slope is created through wind action. The theoretical development of the equations for determining the interfacial stress and wind slope assumes that:

- (a) the air and water are homogeneous,
- (b) the eddy viscosity is independent of depth,
- (c) the stability of the air is nearly "indifferent," and
- (d) an "equilibrium" state of the sea exists.

(Sverdrup, et al., 1942, pp. 473, 476, 491, 492, 495, 498; Montgomery, 1952, p. 133; Hutchinson, 1957, pp. 257, 265, 266, 267.)

The set-up, the difference in elevation of the water surface between the windward and leeward ends of a body of water, may be determined by the equation

$$S = \frac{n\tau_s L}{\rho g H} \quad (3)$$

where

$$\tau_s = K_{sp} \rho_a V^2 \quad (4)$$

and where

S = total set-up

n = numerical coefficient based on $\frac{\tau_0}{\tau_s} + 1$, where τ_0 = bottom stress
and τ_s = surface stress

τ_s = tangential surface stress

L = distance between the maximum and minimum water elevations

ρ = density of the liquid

g = acceleration due to gravity

H = undisturbed depth of water

ρ_a = density of moist air

K_s = drag or resistance coefficient, also written C_d and γ^2

V^2 = component of wind causing the maximum set-up

An accurate determination of set-up from the quantities involved in equations (3) and (4) is difficult due to the wide variances existing in the values for n , K_s and the exponent of V .

The quantity n (also labeled x , H and C_s), the ratio of the bottom stress to the surface stress, varies from 1 to 1.5, depending upon the assumptions made by the investigator, and whether the flow is laminar ($n = 1.5$) or turbulent ($1 \leq n < 1.5$) (Hellström, 1941, pp. 25, 51; Keulegan, 1951, pp. 36, 61; Van Dorn, 1953, p. 253; Hutchinson, 1957, p. 273).

The extreme range of values for the drag coefficient K_s is aptly illustrated by B. W. Wilson's (1960) review of the work of some 47

investigators dealing with wind-stress measurements. After "... adapting the laboratory data for wind speeds at 10-cm height (usually) to prototype conditions of wind speeds at 10-m height ..." and adjusting the results of various workers to the " U^2 Law," Wilson (1960, p. 3381) found that:

The over-all average value (for strong winds) is 2.37×10^{-3} with a standard deviation of 0.56×10^{-3} , ...

The average value of C_d for light winds is found to be 1.49×10^{-3} with a standard deviation of 0.83×10^{-3} The over-all range of values in this case extends from 0.4×10^{-3} to 4.2×10^{-3} and even 6.2×10^{-3} , though the latter value has been discounted in the averaging. ...

It may be seen from the conclusions reached in Wilson's paper that the determination of the value of the drag (or resistance) coefficient has improved only slightly since 1952 when R. B. Montgomery (1952, p. 134) declared "... the present evidence is so conflicting that at no wind speed is the resistance coefficient known confidently within half its value."

The third key quantity, the exponent of the wind velocity, as expressed in the general formula of equation (4), that is

$$\tau_s = K_s \rho_a (V - v_o)^m \quad (5)$$

(where v_o = the velocity of the surface water, which is small as compared to V and is dropped) is usually taken as the square power; although values from 1.5 to 5 have been used (Wilson, 1960, p. 3378; Hutchinson, 1957, pp. 273-275; Sverdrup, et al., 1942, p. 490).

The determination of the wind velocity term—usually considered as V^2 —is further complicated by the fact that the set-up (as measured at any point) is the result of two component winds, a regional wind and a local wind. Therefore, it is necessary to determine the velocity of two winds whose influence varies in relative importance in response to changing velocities, durations and areal extent (Miller, 1958, p. 1; Gallé, 1925, pp. 917-918).

Theoretical determinations of the types of wind-driven currents in the ocean and their direction of motion with respect to the wind have been derived by V. W. Ekman and others from the Euler-Navier theory of laminar flow with the coefficient of viscosity in the equations being replaced by an "eddy" viscosity, a mechanical viscosity which depends upon the nature and state of motion of the fluid. The development of these theories also requires that the assumptions listed in a previous paragraph be made; i.e., that: (a) the air and water be homogeneous, (b) the eddy viscosity be independent of depth, (c) the stability of air and water be nearly indifferent, (d) equilibrium state of the sea exists, and in addition that, (e) the water be so deep that no bottom stress exists, and (f) that the horizontal stresses and their frictional forces not be considered (Sverdrup, et al., 1942, pp. 469-500; Hutchinson, 1957, pp. 259-273; Hellström, 1941, pp. 21-51; Eckart, 1960, pp. 1, 65-71, 95-97).

Because conditions in nature seldom conform to the assumptions underlying the theoretical basis for determining the types of currents and their

relations to the wind, because laminar flow rarely, if ever, occurs in large natural bodies of water, and because doubt has been cast on the validity of using the Euler-Navier theory with the replacement of μ (dynamic coefficient of molecular viscosity) by ϵ (coefficient of eddy viscosity) and ν (kinematic coefficient of molecular viscosity) by K (kinematic coefficient of eddy viscosity) for turbulent flow (Dryden, et al., 1956, pp. 389-390), the numerical values derived by Ekman for the angles between winds and wind currents, for the depths of frictional resistance, for the sizes of the bottom Ekman spiral, etc., at various water depths do not have the universal application that other investigators have given them.

The improbability of constructing an exact and complete mathematical model of the varying, interacting factors which exist in nature in the oceans and atmosphere demands a constant analysis and adjustment of theory when theoretical results conflict with observations of natural conditions. Very often empirical observations of the angles between wind direction and wind-drift currents in the oceans and in shallow bodies of water have been dismissed as being in error when they disagreed with Ekman's angle of 45° ; in addition, the results of current measurements and directions of water slope have been questioned because Ekman's theory predicted very small or no angles between wind direction and current direction and water slope. Although Ekman's theory was the first and most important workable explanation of ocean currents, as with

any theory it must be evaluated in the light of new knowledge.

Long Period Meteorological Changes

Changes in wind velocities and barometric pressures throughout time are important as the existence of land uplift revealed by tide gage records taken over a number of decades may be obscured by a progressive change in mean sea level caused by long period changes in the atmospheric circulation. This type of change in mean sea level can be brought about by a residual meteorological effect, as well as by eustatic change in sea level—neither of which is eliminated by averaging the tidal records over a full tidal cycle of 19 years (Marmer, 1935, pp. 30, 33, 48; 1948, pp. 201-02; 1951, pp. 63-64). At least two investigators (Kääriäinen, 1953, p. 27; Bergsten, 1930, p. 52) have pointed out that presumed variations in the amount of land uplift, as revealed by tide gage records corrected for known meteorological effects and eustatic change, are actually mean sea level variations resulting from long term climatic fluctuations.

The increase in mean sea level of 0.29 foot from 1902 to 1939 in New York Harbor (or 0.78 foot per 100 years) may be also partially or wholly explained by long range temperature and wind field changes.

Recent studies (Mather, 1954, pp. 287, 297; Baum and Haven, 1956, pp. 441-42, 447-48; Bjerknes, 1959, pp. 65-69; Landsberg, 1960, p. 1519) have shown that changes in the over-all circulation of the atmosphere, revealed by increased temperature and pressure changes, have occurred

in the last fifty years. During this period, which corresponds approximately with the time that continuous tide records of New York Harbor have been kept, the temperature over the Northern Hemisphere has increased and the pressure differences in the North Atlantic off the east coast have also increased.

The water supplied by the melting of the glaciers and the increased heating of ocean waters shown by the increased annual temperature may be the chief causes of a eustatic change of sea level amounting to about 11 cm/100 years (Gutenberg, 1941, pp. 729-30; Kuenen, 1950, pp. 532-35). A eustatic rise of sea level of this magnitude would increase the elevation of mean sea level in New York Harbor by 0.13 foot from 1902-1939.

The height of mean sea level in New York Harbor is affected primarily by astronomic tides and by water piled up by barometric pressure differences and the wind. Another factor which may influence the height of mean sea level at this location is variation in the discharge of the Hudson River—the discharge averages 26,000 cubic feet of fresh water per second at the Narrows, according to H. A. Marmer (1935, p. 2).

The barometric pressure effect and wind slope are composed of local and deep water components, both of which depend upon large scale atmospheric pressure differences. If mean sea level is derived from 19 years of tidal observations, the meteorological effects as well as the astronomical tides should be eliminated. However, if a progressive increase in pressure and geostrophic wind has taken place since the 1890's as

suggested by Bjerknes (1959, p.69), the residual effect of the increased piling up of water would be a rise in mean sea level. This increase could account for the 0.16 foot of mean sea level increase at New York remaining after the 0.13 foot change due to the eustatic rise of sea level had been accounted for.

Effect of Tide Gage Location

Primary tide stations which provide the necessary data for the computation of land movement, as well as for furnishing end points of precise leveling lines, are usually located near coastal cities and towns which are almost always built along estuaries and harbors. The factors that influence the elevation of mean sea level (tides, wind slopes and barometric pressure differences), have their greatest effect at those places where the water is shallow. In addition, the phenomenon of resonance which Proudman (1954, p. 200) calls: "the primary cause of the pronounced amplification (of the tide) observed in some gulfs and estuaries ..." occurs in bays, harbors and estuaries. In other words, in many cases primary tide gages are situated in those areas where changes in the terrestrial and submarine topography will have the greatest effect (Harris, 1907, pp. 435, 453, 455; Hayford, 1922, pp. 123, 124; Marmer, 1935, pp. 15, 43, 52; 1951, pp. 23, 45; Sverdrup, et al., 1942, pp. 539, 554, 562; Harris, 1954, p. 45; Proudman, 1954, pp. 199, 200, 202; Defant, 1958, pp. 68, 75).

Land uplift, due to its small magnitude (e.g., 0.75 foot/100 miles/100 years in the Baltic region), cannot be accurately measured unless index marks are compared with mean sea level over a period of several decades. If mean sea level (as determined by tide gages) changes during this period, the variation must be compensated for before land uplift can be calculated. During the decades in which the records are being taken, natural and man-made changes occur in the coast line and in the submarine topography which affect the range of the tide (Marmer, 1951, pp. 132-133). For example: the dredging of channels and dumping of spoil in shallow water; the filling in of shallow areas to extend the shore; the building of breakwaters, groins, piers, etc.; the growth of spits, bars and deltas; all change the configuration of the bottom and the shore, which in turn influences the height of the tide and of wind setup thus effecting the determination of mean sea level.

Two additional factors which may influence the determination of mean sea level at tide gages which are located in estuaries and straits are: (a) variations in the discharge of the stream, and (b) the difference in range of tide on opposite shores of a strait due to the deflective force of the earth's rotation (Marmer, 1935, pp. 19, 21, 57, 67-68; 1951, p. 45; Jensen and Sinding, 1945, pp. 16-19). Adjustments must be made for these factors when the records of two different tide gages are compared; or when records covering a number of decades from one tide gage are compared.

Instrument and Operator Error

The use of modern recording gages, modern operating procedures, and modern methods of record reduction have reduced the limits of error in the determination of mean sea level to negligible proportions for ordinary purposes; however, the computation of the rates of land movement from water-level records must use still more accurate methods because of the very small magnitudes involved. An additional problem stems from the fact that calculation of rates of crustal movement requires that mean sea level figures derived from relatively accurate modern instruments be compared with mean sea level determinations of forty, fifty, or more years ago—a period when neither the instruments nor the procedures were as precise as those of today. In order to evaluate the accuracy of water-level records, it is necessary to examine the errors which may have their source in the recording instrument and its operators.

Errors may enter in the determination of mean sea level in one or more of the following steps: (a) in the recording of relative sea level by the automatic gage, (b) in the recording of "absolute" sea level by the operator using a staff, hook, or electric tape gage, and (c) in the reduction of data from the continuous curve of the automatic water-level gage to daily, monthly, and yearly means. The discussion of instrument and operator error will not include the effects of obvious gross errors resulting from equipment malfunctions (e.g., leaky floats, improperly calibrated staff gages, freezing of float in the stilling well, etc.),

or personnel blunders (e.g., failure to read and record numbers correctly, failure to keep stilling well inlet clear, failure to take staff gage readings, errors in computations, etc.).

Water-level recorders, being float operated instruments, are subject to certain errors inherent in their construction. The errors are usually very small in instruments of modern design with large floats and light lines and counterweights; they assume much greater proportions, however, in the more crude instruments of 50-100 years ago.

As may be seen in Fig. 3 (p. 42), the float, through the medium of the float line and counterweight, performs work in operating the recorder pen. Owing to the friction in the instrument there is a lag between the force being applied by the water and the recording of the water level on the recorder chart. If the index is set while the float is rising, the rising stages will be recorded correctly, but the falling stages will be above the true level by the amount of the "float lag;" if the index is set for a falling stage, the rising stage will be low due to the lag.

When the float rises, part of the float line passing over the pulley adds its weight to the counterweight; thus lifting the float and causing the index pen to register a height greater than the elevation of the water level. When the water level goes down, the weight of the increased length of line is added to the float, causing the pen to record an elevation lower than the actual water level. If the counterweight and the line enter the water, their weight will be reduced by buoyancy; the float

will sink deeper into the water and the recorded water level will be too low (Stevens, n.d., pp. 20-27; 1919-1920, pp. 394-395; Corbett, et al., 1943, pp. 183-189).

The magnitude of the above errors may be computed by the following empirical formulas from J. C. Stevens's Hydrographic Data Book (no date, pp. 27-28). Stevens's formulas, which give the errors in feet with instruments using lead counterweights and steel float lines, are quoted below:

$$\text{Maximum error due to float lag} = 0.37 \frac{F}{D^2} \dots\dots(7) \quad (6)$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Error from submergence of} \\ \text{counterpoise} \end{array} = 0.017 \frac{C}{D^2} \dots\dots(14) \quad (7)$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Error from line shift with} \\ \text{counterpoise in air} \end{array} = 0.37 \frac{u}{D^2} \Delta H \dots\dots(11) \quad (8)$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Error from line shift with} \\ \text{counterpoise submerged} \end{array} = 0.34 \frac{u}{D^2} \Delta H \dots\dots(15) \quad (9)$$

in which

F = force (pull on float line) in ounces to move index
 D = diameter of float in inches
 u = weight of float line in ounces per foot
 C = weight of counterpoise in ounces
 ΔH = change in stage in feet from previous setting.

Float records may also be affected by changes in humidity which can cause an expansion or contraction of the recorder paper, or, in those instruments using hemp float line, which cause a change in the length of the line. If the index pen records on the gage paper in a humid environment, where the paper is expanded, and measurements of the water stage are taken from the record in a normal environment, where the paper has resumed

its normal dimensions, an error will be incorporated in the readings. The error can be compensated for only if two base line pens (a fixed distance apart) record in opposite margins of the chart. In this case the actual distance between the margin lines can be compared with the known fixed distance and the corrections computed (Stevens, n.d., pp. 32-38; Chrystal, 1908, pp. 361-370).

The role of the operator in the recording of relative sea level by the automatic gage has been summarized by J. C. Stevens (n.d., pp. 39-40) who said:

The Human Equation constitutes the greatest possible source of error. Incorrect gage reading, inaccurate setting of pens and pencils, failure to wind the clock, failure to start clock after being wound, failure to put stylus on the paper, wrongly attaching float so that pen moves up when it should go down, failure to release set screws or to tighten them as the case may be, failure to note gage reading and time on record sheet; failure to see that inlet to well is open; failure to oil bearings occasionally, or the use of gummy oil, are among the few things that all too frequently result in erroneous or incomplete records.

The records of relative heights of sea level are changed to actual sea level elevations by comparing elevations on the gage record with separate readings made simultaneously by the operator with a staff, hook or electric tape gage at periodic intervals. The separate height determination measures the distance between an index mark on the water-level recorder and the surface of the sea. Because the index mark could, and often does, change due to accident, replacement of the equipment, etc., it is essential that the elevation of the index mark be tied by precise

spirit leveling to three or more permanent bench marks. It is obvious that for a study extending over a number of years, it is of utmost importance that regular connections be made between tide gage and bench marks in order to detect any change in the elevation of the index mark; probably one of the greatest errors in the determination of mean sea level over a long period of time is the failure to check the height of the tide gage index with its bench marks,

Other errors which may occur in the determination of "absolute" sea level by means of a staff gage are those due to the "error of the interval" of the staff gage and the "personal error" of the observer.

The "error of the interval" is, according to R. Gibbs (1929, p. 71), "... the same as the probable error of the last figure, namely one-quarter of the interval." H. A. Marmer (1951, p. 30) in speaking of U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey procedure, states that: "The observer reads the staff to the nearest half tenth of a foot if the water is free from waves, or to the nearest tenth giving the highest and lowest readings." In this case the error should be ± 0.012 foot or ± 0.025 foot.

The "personal error" of the observer results from the particular way in which an observer takes his observations; e.g., the observer may always assume a certain position, so that his eye is a little above the index mark; thus introducing a degree of parallax which would differ from that in the reading of another observer; or one observer may tend to mentally subdivide the interval between the graduations so as to favor

recording even tenths of a foot, whereas another observer may favor recording half tenths. Thus, if "... the maximum error of any function due to errors in the variables is the sum of the errors due to each separately" as stated by R. Gibbs (1929, p. 77); then in the course of 50-100 years the sum of the observers' "personal errors" and of the "errors of the interval" could be significant.

Errors in the determination of mean sea level which originate in the tabulation of mean values from the continuous gage curve (excluding errors in calculation) may be classed under three headings: (a) sampling error, (b) errors of interval, and (c) errors of interpretation. These errors are probably of insignificant size for short term calculations, but their effects taken over a period of fifty or more years may be appreciable—apparently no studies as to their significance have been published.

The gage record of an automatic tide gage is a continuous sample of the fluctuating surface of the sea; if the effects of the disturbing factors were removed from the trace of the gage, the remaining curve would be a representative sample of mean sea level. If the effects of the disturbing elements and instrument errors are not removed from the gage record, a primary sampling error occurs. Furthermore, monthly and yearly averages are not compiled from the irregular gage trace, but are compiled from hourly tabulations taken from the curve. The discrepancy between the hourly values of sea level and the values obtained from the integrated area under the curve may be called the secondary sampling error.

As monthly means are computed from the hourly tabulation, yearly means from the monthly, and 19-year means from the yearly; the samples become less and less representative of the actual elevations of the sea (this assumes that the effects of the disturbing elements have been removed, and that the discrepancies are due solely to using averages based on hourly tabulations and other averages rather than being based on the continuous curve). The error arising from these procedures is a sample averaging error.

The errors of interval in the tabulation of mean sea level occur in two places: (a) in determining the factor used to reduce the gage trace to a fixed datum, and (b) in making the hourly tabulation from the trace. The values for the height of the tide at the time of the staff gage readings are measured (to tenths and half tenths of a foot) from the preliminary datum line to the curve with a reading scale graduated to the same scale as is used on the tide gage. This height (the relative height) is subtracted from the staff gage reading (the absolute height); the differences are summed and divided by the number of readings to obtain the mean difference. The mean difference, together with a constant for fixed datum, is added to the preliminary datum setting to obtain the correct height of the base line of the gage curve. The hourly readings are then measured to tenths and half tenths from the base line to the curve.

The gage trace (if the stilling well inlet is not small enough) is not a smooth curve, but, instead, is an irregular curve with small sharp fluctuations ("saw teeth") due to the action of waves and swells and

larger irregularities due to seiches (periodic oscillations of the water body)—the irregularity of the trace makes tabulation difficult. Therefore, "For use in the determination of tidal datum planes it is preferable to consider a smooth curve through such irregularities and tabulate the hourly heights directly from this smooth curve" (Marmer, 1951, p. 41).

The error of interpretation is the algebraic sum of the differences between the actual tidal curve and the smooth curve. Another source of interpretative error takes place when an interpolation is made for breaks in the tidal record. As in the previous case, the error is the algebraic sum of the differences between the interpolated curve and the actual sea level.

The influence of instrument and operator error is relatively small in modern records; nevertheless it is still too large if accurate uplift rates are to be computed. Rates of postglacial crustal movement in Fennoscandia illustrates the need for very accurate measurements. The rate of uplift 87 miles from the former ice center is 2.68 feet per century (Kääriäinen, 1953, p. 59, Fig. 14) or 0.03 foot/year (0.002 foot/month), and only 450 miles from the ice center uplift ceases; the average rate is 0.75 foot/100 miles/100 years. The small magnitudes of these uplift rates emphasizes the fact that the cumulative effects of the various factors which distort the true value of mean sea level must be considered and eliminated, or at least compensated for, if accurate rates of uplift are to be determined.

LAKE LEVEL GAGES

Records of pairs of lake-level gages have been the basis for crustal movement studies in the lake plateau of Finland and the Great Lakes region of North America. The Finnish lake study of A. Sireⁿ in 1951 utilized the principle that the means of lake-level elevations, corrected for meteorological effects and the effect of slope due to discharge, would provide a level surface for the comparison, over a number of years, of two gages which were remote from each other. When the average values of the gage differences are plotted against time and the points connected by a straight line, the slope of the line gives the average land uplift.

The calculation of rates of uplift in the Great Lakes area by various investigators have followed the method of G. K. Gilbert (1896-97)—using the procedures described on pages 7-8, which briefly, is that elevations of pairs of lake gage stations are measured from a level surface (the lake surface), and the differences between the elevations of the gages plotted for a period of time. If a line of best-fit through the points has a slope, land uplift exists. When this method is used, no corrections are made for the effects of disturbing agents on the lake surface nor are corrections applied to the gage readings; it is assumed that the lake surface is level during the summer months (Comstock, 1876, p. 5; 1882, p. 595) (see Appendix I). The fact that each rate calculated by this method depends upon the records of two gages brings out the importance of detecting and removing those factors which distort the recording of true lake

level at each gage station.

Lake level gages and the procedures used to convert their recording curves to mean lake level elevations differ only in minor detail from tide gages and tide gaging procedure; therefore, the discussion of the factors which influence tide gage records also applies to lake-level records.)

Tides

Astronomical tides on those lakes large enough to exhibit detectable tides are measured in inches, whereas ocean tides are measured in feet. In the Great Lakes, Defant (1958, Table 4) shows Lake Erie as having a spring tide of 8.0 cm (0.26 ft), Lake Michigan of 7.3 cm (0.24 ft), and Lake Superior of 5.9 cm (0.19 ft).

The effects of tides of this magnitude should be very small, unless the lake-level gages are located in shallow water or in sites with converging shores; under these circumstances the tidal range would be increased. Rates of crustal movements in lake regions are computed from the differences in elevation of two gages; if dredging, construction of breakwaters, etc., occurred at one or both of the gage sites, it is possible that the change in the range of tide would appear in the gage height differences to be incorporated in the rate of uplift.

Meteorological Effects

The influence of wind and barometric pressure differences was discussed in many of the early papers dealing with fluctuations of the Great

Lakes (e.g., Dwight, 1822, p. 96; Clinton, 1827, pp. 292, 293; Whiting, 1831, p. 214; Hall, 1843, p. 410; Mather, 1848, p. 1617; Whittlesey, 1859; Lachlan, 1855, pp. 165, 168, 172). These investigators of the late 18th and early 19th century observed the increase in the depth of water which occurred on the eastern shores of the lakes with prevailing westerly winds; were aware that barometric pressure differences piled up water in the area of lower pressure, and that this created seiches; and described the effects of shallow water and converging shores on wind slopes and seiches. Later studies of wind slope and barometric effect were concentrated on Lake Erie which produces greater wind slopes than any of the other lakes due to its shallowness, its long narrow shape with pointed ends, and its alignment with the prevailing winds (Blunt, 1897; Henry, 1902; Hayford, 1922; Hayford, 1923; Hellström, 1941, pp. 115-128; Keulegan, 1953; Hunt, 1958; Gillies, 1959).

Wind slope in the Great Lakes, as in the ocean, varies directly with the square of the wind velocity and inversely with the depth of water (see p. 51). In the formula (3) for setup

$$S = \frac{n\tau_s L}{\rho g H}$$

the undisturbed depth of water H is taken as the average depth of water along length L (e.g., in Lake Erie, H equals 58 feet); however, the establishment of "thermoclines" in the Great Lakes during the summer months may require a modification of the usual definition of H .

During the summer months in the Great Lakes a thermal stratification of the water in which an upper layer of " ... more or less uniformly warm, circulating and fairly turbulent water termed epilimmion, ..." is divided from "... a deep, cold and relatively undisturbed region termed the hypolimnion..." by the "thermocline ... defined as the plane of maximum rate of decrease in temperature ..." (Hutchinson, 1958, pp. 427-28). (Eckart, 1960, pp. 69-71). The depth of the thermocline is about 50-100 feet in Lake Huron and in the deeper portions of Lake Michigan and 20-50 feet in the shallow southern basin of Lake Michigan. (Ayers, et al., 1956, pp. 9, 41, 66; 1958, pp. 5, 31, 54, 80). The thermocline in Lake Erie is similar to the thermocline in the southern basin of Lake Michigan, usually being from 25-45 feet deep in the more shallow western two-thirds of the lake and 45-60 feet deep in the eastern third. At times during the summer the epilimmion extends to the bottom (up to 60 feet) in the central and western parts of Lake Erie, and maintains this depth across the deeper eastern third of the lake (Powers, et al., 1959, pp. 150-164). Presumably Lake Ontario has about the same depth to the thermocline (20-100 feet) as occurs in the deeper portions of Lake Michigan and Lake Huron (Hachey, 1952, pp. 326-328).

The significance of the depth of the thermocline is that "... the boundary between the two layers acts as if it were a temporary bottom" (Hellstrom, 1941, p. 112). In other words, during the summer when the lakes are stratified, the depth of water H in formula (3) could be considered as the average depth to the thermocline rather than the average

depth to the actual bottom. This concept is reinforced by observations made on the Scottish Lochs Ness and Gary (Murray, 1908, pp. 416-417; Wedderburn and Watson, 1908-09, pp. 629, 635; Wedderburn, 1909-10, pp. 312, 317, 319); Lake George, New York (Langmuir, 1938, pp. 121-123); and the Sakrower and Walchensee, Germany (Hutchison, 1957, pp. 287-288).

If the thermocline acts as a quasi-bottom, and since the depth to the thermocline is approximately the same in all of the Great Lakes, the amount of deflection between wind direction and surface current for Lake Erie during the summer months should be representative of the amount of deflection for the other lakes.

H. L. Langhaar (1951, pp. 279-280) has suggested that the total wind slope in lakes is made up of two component parts, a "statical tide" and a "dynamical tide." He declares that:

The tide at the leeward end of the lake is the superposition of the tide due to the seiches and the statical tide that the wind would maintain if it persisted indefinitely. The tide due to the seiches will be called the "dynamical tide." The total height h of the tide at the leeward end of the lake is $h = h_s + h_d$, ... the term h_d [dynamical tide] varies periodically with time.

The maximum value of the ratio h_d/h_s depends upon the planform of the lake, and upon the rate at which the wind develops.

Differences in elevation (corrected for barometric pressure effect) which are recorded by two gages over a number of years consist of a component resulting from the differences in the average height of water-level fluctuations produced by seiches at one gage being subtracted from the average height of water-level fluctuations produced by seiches at the

other gage (the "dynamical" portion), and a larger component made up of the net differences in water-level caused by the force of the wind (the "statical" portion). The magnitude of both components would be influenced by changes in the gage site environment occurring over a number of years (see pp. 58-59, 73-75).

The barometric pressure effect on the Great Lakes is of less importance than it is on the oceans owing to the smaller pressure gradients which exist over the lakes. Over the summer month period the differences in barometric pressure, and thus the barometric effect, between two gage sites on the Great Lakes has an order of magnitude of 10^{-2} or 10^{-3} , whereas the order of magnitude of the net wind slope during the summer months is 10^{-1} (see Table 6, Appendix II, p. 179), e.g., if the effects of convergence and resonance are not taken into account, the barometric effect between Toledo and Buffalo on Lake Erie ranged between 0.002 foot and 0.017 foot for the summer months, 1950-59.

Effect of Lake-Level Gage Locations

Lake-level gages, like their counterparts in the oceans, are usually located near population centers. This means that almost all gages are in harbors or bays, within river mouths, or within a river mouth located in a harbor or bay; e.g., in Lake Ontario the gages at Kingston and Cape Vincent are situated on the north and south channels of the St. Lawrence River; in Lake Erie, Buffalo is at the very narrow eastern end of Lake Erie and at the entrance of the Niagara River and Toledo lies at the

apex of the converging shores of Maumee Bay and at the mouth of the Maumee River; in Lake Michigan-Huron, Collingwood, Ontario is in Nottawasaga Bay, Thessalon, Ontario, is at the western end of North Channel and Mackinaw City is on the Straits of Mackinac; in Lake Superior the key gage at Point Iroquois is at the mouth of the St. Marys River at the southeast end of Whitefish Bay; Port Arthur is within Thunder Bay at the outlet of several rivers and Duluth is within Superior Bay at the outlet of the St. Louis River.

The discussion on pages 58-59 of the effects of converging shores, shallow water, and resonance on the piling up of water by wind slope and barometric effect also applies to lakes. Man-made and natural modification of the shores and underwater topography during the last 100 years have probably been as extensive in the Great Lakes regions as in ocean ports, which would result in a progressive change in lake level elevations being incorporated in the gage records.

Recent advances in telemetering equipment used in oceanography and space satellites suggests that certain key water-level gages on each of the Great Lakes could be located well off-shore in deep water; from these sites wind velocities, barometric pressures, temperatures and water-surface elevations could be automatically determined, transmitted and recorded. The location of water-level gages away from shallow water, bays, harbors, etc., would decrease the effects of convergence and resonance; thus the errors caused by meteorological effects, tides, river discharges and man-made changes would be greatly reduced. The recording of

temperature, wind and barometric pressure data at each of the key gage sites would provide the necessary information for the correction of the remaining meteorological effects.

Instrument and Operator Errors

Errors in the recording, correlating and reduction of lake-level gage records are of the same nature and order as those found in tide gage records; therefore the discussion of instrument and operator errors on pages 60-67 will also apply to lake-level gaging. Again it must be emphasized that rates of land uplift are computed from records which include those taken 45 or more years ago when neither the instruments nor the procedures were as refined as those of today, and errors which are very small in modern records are of much greater proportions in the older records.

The "error of the interval" of lake-level records will be smaller than that found in tide gage records because both staff gage readings and tabulated values are given in hundredths of a foot rather than tenths or half-tenths of a foot. The errors of interpretation caused by the replacement of the actual recorded trace by a smooth curve is much reduced or absent in lake-level records owing to a virtual lack of "saw-tooth" fluctuations in the trace, apparently the result of better damping of short period waves.

In an effort to obtain some concept of the magnitude of the secondary sampling error caused by obtaining a mean lake level from hourly tabu-

lations of the gage record rather than from the continuous curve itself, a comparison was made between a monthly mean lake level as published by the U. S. Lake Survey and a monthly mean level computed from the continuous curve of the same gage record.

The lake-level gage record from Toledo, Ohio, for September, 1959, was used for the comparison. The area under the continuous curve, which was measured with a planimeter, was divided by the length of the base line in order to obtain the mean altitude of the lake surface curve above the bottom line of the gage record. The mean altitude of the curve was converted to feet (1.618 feet) and added to the mean elevation of the bottom line of the gage record of 570.512 feet (obtained from staff gage readings). This resulted in a mean elevation of 570.131 feet for the lake level—the mean elevation for September, 1959, published by the U. S. Lake Survey was 570.13 feet.

Despite the fact that only one comparison of one gage was made for one month of one year, the close agreement of the two means suggests that the secondary sampling error for monthly means is small.

MEASUREMENT AND ERRORS

A review of the literature concerning the results of water-level gaging and the determination of rates of land uplift reveals that often the distinction between precise measurements and accurate measurements is not made, that statistical results are offered as proof of a statement without other supporting evidence, and that the Method of Least

Squares has been used without the prior removal of constant and systematic errors. These points suggest the need of a brief discussion of measurement and the influence of errors.

Measurement has been defined by N. R. Campbell (1957, pp. 267, 524) as, "... the process of assigning numbers to represent qualities," and "the primary object of measurement is to find a way of assigning to each of an ordered series of magnitudes a numeral, so that to each magnitude is assigned one and only one number and so that the order of the numerals is the order of the magnitudes...."

Numbers are assigned "by comparing systems with the standard series." Each "system" has a hypothetical true magnitude which is related to the true magnitudes of other "systems" by a numerical law (equation of condition) which is capable of being represented by an analytic function.

If measurements are carried out with the most accurate instruments available, where "... by the most accurate 'instrument' is meant, not merely a piece of apparatus which would ordinarily be called an instrument, but any arrangement whatever which permits measurement" (Campbell, 1957, p. 517), and with no discernable error of method, the observed magnitude may fail to approach the true magnitude by a maximum error E which is characteristic of the instrument of measurement and is dependent upon the smallest "step" of the instrument.

When measurements are carried out with the above qualifications it will be found that a series of measurements will fail to agree within

fixed limits. The range of the inconsistency is determined by the error of consistency which N. R. Campbell (1957, p. 475) defines as:

Nothing but errors of method magnified until they can be directly detected by experiment. The magnification is effected through the equation of condition, and results either from the addition of several partial errors of method, each of which could not be detected separately, or from the transference of the error from a magnitude less accurately measurable to one which is more accurately measurable.

Campbell (1957, p. 509) states further that:

The fundamental fact in the whole theory of errors of inconsistency [consistency] is that the true value of a complete collection of inconsistent measurements on a single magnitude is the arithmetic mean. If the collection (still consisting of measurements on a single magnitude) is incomplete, then we cannot determine the true value, that is really all that there is to be said about it. It may be convenient for some strictly limited purpose to express the results by a single numeral, and, if that is so, we shall probably select again the arithmetic mean as that numeral; but it cannot be too strongly insisted that the selection of that numeral does not imply a belief that it is the true value.

Measurements are usually divided into two general classes; (a) direct measurements which are made by observing the comparison of a standard with the system being measured, and (b) indirect measurements which are obtained by computation from direct measurements. It is apparent that the errors which affect indirect measurements are functions of the component direct measurements.

Errors are usually classified as: (a) gross errors ("blunders," "mistakes"), (b) constant errors which have the same effect (maintain the same sign and magnitude) on all the observations of a particular series of observations, (c) systematic errors whose algebraic sign and

magnitude are determined by a fixed relation to some condition (being based on a law, they may be detected if the law and its coefficients are known), and (d) accidental ("erratic," "residual," "experimental") errors which are the errors that remain after the gross, constant and systematic errors have been removed from the observation. Accidental errors are independent errors which are small in magnitude, are as likely to be positive as negative, and are much more likely to be small than large. Accidental errors are the only errors amenable to adjustment by the Method of Least Squares (Holman, 1904, pp. 4-10; Wright and Hayford, 1906, pp. 7-8, 45, 83, 273-278; Goodwin, 1920, pp. 7-12; Blunt, 1931, pp. 1-5; Beers, 1953, pp. 3-7; Anderson, 1955, p. 7; Rainsford, 1957, pp. 1-5).

The customary classification of errors in the preceding paragraphs would be encompassed by "errors of method" [if errors of method are considered to include the magnified errors of method (errors of consistency) in N. R. Campbell's (1957, pp. 267-294, 437-521) theory of measurement and error]. If errors of method exist in the observed magnitude the numerical law which relates that magnitude to other magnitudes cannot be determined; as long as these errors exist, the true magnitude, as represented by the arithmetic mean, cannot be found. When the errors of method are removed to the point that only errors of consistency remain, the arithmetic mean may be used as the true value and possible laws may be formulated which relate the magnitude to other systems.

The concepts of accurate measurement and precise measurement are also clarified by Campbell's theory. An accurate measurement is one in which both the errors of method and errors of consistency are insignificant; thus the observed value will approach the true value and may be related by numerical law to other magnitudes. Precise measurement, on the other hand, is measurement in which the errors of consistency are low but errors of method remain. In this situation several different series of determinations would yield similar magnitudes, but the equation of condition would be false and the magnitudes would not have the proper relation to other magnitudes. Because the goal of measurement is the determination of numerical laws, the taking of precise measurements (in that it reduces the error of consistency) is only a step in the determination of accurate values and is not an end in itself.

The Method of Least Squares which is:

A mathematical method for determining: (a) the most probable value of a single quantity from a number of measurements of that quantity; (b) the probable error of the mean value of a number of observations; (c) the best curve which may be drawn for a series of observed values of the ordinate over a range of values of the abscissa. (AGI, 1957, p. 184).

... rests upon the mathematical demonstration that where each of a very large number of observations of any quantity is of the same quality as the others, the most probable value of the quantity is the one for which the sum of the squares of the residual errors (or corrections) is a minimum...(Mitchell, 1948, p. 44).

The method has been a useful statistical tool for many years, and when used correctly provides the most probable values for observations. However, the fundamental requirement that first constant and systematic

errors be removed from the observations is, at times, not followed; thus erroneous conclusions are reached.

The importance of this requirement is emphasized by the following quotations:

T. W. Wright and J. F. Hayford (1906, p. 278) declared that:

The detection of systematic or constant errors necessarily involves least squares as a basis, but this must be supplemented by something else, as the method of least squares deals with accidental errors only.

D. Brunt (1931, p.v.) states that:

It cannot be too strongly insisted upon that the methods of Least Squares cannot in any way improve upon the actual observations. The application of these methods to a large number of carelessly conducted experiments cannot in general be expected to yield results as reliable as could be obtained from two or three carefully conducted experiments....

W. E. Deming (1943, p. 2) states:

The principle of Least Squares provides a method for getting an adjusted value. It can be applied whether or not the data are worth adjusting, but the results are useful only when the data are good in the first place; no purely mathematical procedure can make a good figure out of any number of bad ones. Data not in statistical control—i.e., not random, are not usefully adjusted. It is important to know when data are worth adjusting.

and he continues (pp. 11-12) by declaring:

The method of least squares can be applied to a single set of data, but no matter how carefully the least squares adjustment is carried out, the curve so fitted, or the observations so adjusted, do not have scientific validity unless there is other evidence at hand to show under what conditions the same or similar results will be obtained, and how these conditions are to be brought about and controlled.

The preceding discussion of errors and measurement has been made for three principal reasons:

(a) To point out that measurement is fundamentally the determination of numerical laws which relate true magnitudes to each other, and that it is necessary to approach the true magnitude as closely as possible (make accurate measurements) if these laws are to be discovered. For example, when we determine rates of postglacial uplift by means of water-level gages, we are trying to find the numerical law which relates the gage readings or difference in gage readings to the magnitude of the uplift; if the true relationship between the two quantities is to be found, it is necessary to recognize and remove the errors which exist in the measurements. The rates of uplift are valid only to the degree that the errors are removed or compensated for.

(b) To indicate the types of error which affect measurements and to bring out the fact that observations can be adjusted only after constant and systematic errors have been removed so that only accidental errors remain.

(c) To emphasize the fact that the application of statistical tools, such as the method of least squares, cannot be used to produce valid results unless the assumptions upon which the determination is based are true.

PRECISE LEVELING

Precise leveling (also called "leveling of high precision,"

"precision leveling" and "first-order leveling") is the determination of elevations of sequential points on the earth's surface (bench marks) with respect to each other and to a datum plane by means of a refined leveling instrument with a very sensitive spirit level to indicate the horizon. Careful methods of taking and processing the observed elevations, together with a number of corrections (i.e., index, level, rod length, rod temperature, orthometric, curvature, and refraction corrections) reduce the magnitude of errors to certain prescribed limits and permit the establishment of accurate elevations.

Three international meetings held in 1867, 1912 and 1936 set the limits of error which would be allowed for each class of leveling. The 1867 meeting defined precise leveling as leveling with an average probable error not in excess of 3 millimeters per kilometer and a maximum probable error of not more than 5 millimeters per kilometer.

The meeting in 1912 prescribed the following classification (Rappleye, 1948b, p. 150):

Therefore the Seventh General Conference of the International Geodetic Association, still preserving unchanged the limits of error of 1867 for precise leveling, decides to place hereafter in a new class of leveling, to be termed "leveling of high precision," every line, set of lines, or net which is run twice in opposite directions on different dates as far as possible, and whose errors, accidental and systematic, computed by the formulas hereinafter given, do not exceed—

± 1 mm per km for the probable accidental error,
or
 ± 1.5 mm per km for the mean accidental error;

± 0.2 mm per km for the probable systematic error,
or
± 0.3 mm per km for the mean systematic error.

The Sixth General Assembly of the International Association of Geodesy issued new information as to the design of instruments and rods, methods of operation, computation and adjustments which were to be used for leveling of high precision. The Association also redefined leveling of high precision as a method of leveling with a total probable error not exceeding 2 millimeters per kilometer—leveling with a total probable error exceeding 2 millimeters but not exceeding 6 millimeters per kilometer was classified as "precise leveling" (Rappleye, 1948b, p. 154).

First-order leveling of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey and the U. S. Lake Survey includes leveling in which the level lines are divided into 1 to 2 kilometer sections and the results of a forward and backward leveling over a section does not differ by more than $4.0 \text{ mm} \sqrt{K}$ times the square root of the length of the section in kilometers ($4.0 \text{ mm} \sqrt{K}$), or its equivalent: 0.017 times the square root of the length of the section in miles (Mitchell, 1948, pp. 45-46).

H. S. Rappleye (1948a, pp. 1-2) states:

First-order leveling by the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey began with the transcontinental line of levels in 1878. Previous to that time the Bureau had done some leveling, but it was used mostly to control trigonometric leveling and, while it served its purpose, it was not of a high grade of accuracy compared with the standards of today....

and

The first-order leveling done by the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey since 1899 falls within the limits prescribed

for "leveling of high precision" at the Hamburg meeting [1912]. In the 1912 adjustment of the first-order level net the average probable accidental error per kilometer was plus or minus 0.71 millimeter and the average probable systematic error was plus or minus 0.08 millimeter.

Finnish Uplift Rates By Precise Leveling

Finland presents an almost ideal situation for the determination of extensive non-volcanic land uplift by precise leveling. Finland's borders are from c 67 miles (108 km) to c 355 miles (574 km) to the south-east of the former Fennoscandian ice center; thus Finland is very close to the region of maximum uplift.

The underlying igneous and metamorphic bedrock crops out in many areas which allows the placement of numerous bench marks in the stable bedrock; thereby reducing the errors due to shifting bench marks. Probably the most important factor, other than proper instruments and techniques, in the determination of accurate absolute rates of uplift is the fact that the level net is tied into either 14 primary tide gages (first precise leveling) or 12 tide gages (second precise leveling).

The average distance between the 14 tide gages, measured along the leveling lines, was c 78 miles (126 km); the shortest distance was c 36 miles (58 km); and the longest distance was c 138 miles (222 km). The distances between the 12 tide gages of the second precise leveling were: (a) average distance c 81 miles (130 km), (b) shortest distance c 55 miles (88 km), and (c) the longest distance c 138 miles (245 km). The point on the level line polygon which is farthest from a tide gage is c

197 miles (317 km) from the gage, and the point on a level line common to both precise levelings which is farthest from a tide gage is c 182 miles (293 km) from that gage.

The information in the following paragraphs regarding the Finnish precise levelings of 1892-1910 and 1935-1955 is from E. Kääriäinen's "On the Recent Uplift of the Earth's Crust in Finland" (1953, pp. 31-64).

The leveling net of the First Precise Leveling consisted of 11 closed polygons with a total length of leveling lines in the principal net of 2464 miles (3967 km). The smallest polygon was 71.4 miles (115 km) in length and the others ranged from 142.2 miles (229 km) to 502 miles (808 km) in length. Approximately 3,000 bench marks were placed in bed-rock, "immovable" boulders and stone foundations at spacings of 0.93-1.24 miles (1.5-2 km).

"From the closing errors of the polygons, the greatest of which was 66.30 mm it was computed that the mean error of the levelings was ± 1.23 mm/km" (1953, p. 34).

The Second Precise Leveling consists of a network of 13 closed polygons with circumferences ranging from 146 miles (235 km) to 543 miles (874 km). After World War II, 2843 miles (4577 km) of leveling lines and 12 tide gage stations remained within Finnish territory.

"... The greatest closing error, without taking into account the refraction and the land uplift correction is 22.10 mm. The mean error of the Second Leveling, as computed from closing errors, is ± 0.45 mm/km" (1953, p. 36).

The leveling lines common to both the First and Second Leveling totaled 2309 miles (3717 km). Although about 70 per cent of the old bench marks were found (c 46 per cent of which were on rock), the land uplift calculations were based almost entirely upon 900 highly dependable rock bench marks; in a few cases bench marks on boulders were used.

After the necessary computation, corrections and adjustments were made to the leveling lines and nets, the mean errors of the yearly land uplift values were calculated for 28 tie-points, and a value of "... \pm 0.3 mm as the average mean error of the yearly land uplift obtained by precise leveling" (1953, p. 59) was computed. The rates of uplift of the 12 tide gage stations are listed on page 93 of this paper.

(Great Lakes Region—Precise Leveling

Elevations on the Great Lakes have been determined since the first complete leveling in 1875 by a combination of spirit-level measurements and water-level measurements. U. S. Lake Survey leveling lines have originated at a bench mark in Rensselaer, New York, called Greenbush Gristmill (see Appendix I). The elevation of Greenbush Gristmill above sea level was determined by the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey in 1856-57, 1877, 1894, 1902, 1934, and 1955. Instrumental level lines are run between Greenbush and Oswego, New York (the first point of elevation on the Great Lakes proper, and between each of the other Great Lakes. Water-level determinations are used to carry the elevations from the eastern to the western ends of the lakes (Comstock, 1882, pp. 595-609).

The geographic factors inherent in the location of the leveling lines used to determine rates of land uplift in the Great Lakes Region are in distinct contrast to the favorable situation which exists in Finland.

Elevations in the Great Lakes Region are based on leveling lines run forward and backward from the tide gage at New York City to the Greenbush Gristmill bench mark, a distance of c 147 miles (237 km); the level lines are then continued by another organization to Oswego, New York, on Lake Ontario, a distance of 173-195 miles (278-314 km) depending upon the route taken.

From Oswego, the elevations are carried by alternating water-leveling and spirit leveling a distance of c 1212 miles (1950 km) to Duluth, Minnesota. If the rates of uplift are to be calculated for the Lake Superior area, elevations for Port Arthur, Ontario, are used. Port Arthur (which is c 185 miles [298 km] from Duluth) elevations were determined by yet another organization, the Canadian Hydrographic Service, from a comparison with lake-level gage records at Marquette, Michigan, from 1907-1914.

The total length of the leveling lines, both water-level and spirit level, from the tide gage at New York City to the farthest point in the level net (Port Arthur) is approximately 1720 miles (2768 km). This situation is to be compared with the Finnish leveling lines suitable for determining rates of uplift which total 2309 miles (3716 km) and are tied into 12 tide gages. The point which is farthest from a tide gage in

the Finnish level net common to the First and Second Levelings is c 182 miles (292 km) from the tide gage.

The tide gage records used in the Finnish level nets are corrected for the eustatic rise of sea level, meteorological effects, and instrument and operator error, as well as for astronomical tides. The tide gage record at New York City on the other hand, is of a sufficiently long period to eliminate the majority of the astronomical tides and meteorological effects, but the other influences remain uncorrected. Elevations from lake-level gages records are uncorrected observed elevations of the lake surface.

A final comparison between the two areas may be made on the basis of the distances of the areas of uplift from their respective Pleistocene ice centers. The Finnish tide gage at Leppäluoto, which is c 83 miles (134 km) from the ice center, undergoes an uplift of 2.69 feet/100 years (8.80 ± 0.33 mm/year), and the tide gage at Hamina, 346 miles (557 km) from the ice center, is uplifted at a rate of 0.82 foot/100 years (2.70 ± 0.24 mm/year). The distances of these gages from the ice center are to be compared with the distances from the Laurentian ice center to points in the Great Lakes region. For example, the distance from the Canadian ice center to Oswego, New York is c 800 miles (1288 km); from the ice center to Duluth, Minnesota, is c 870 miles (1400 km); and from the ice center to Milwaukee, Wisconsin, on Lake Michigan the distance is c 1110 miles (1790 km).

A concise summary of the caution needed in using precise leveling to

detect rates of crustal movement is stated by F. Németh (1960, p. 53), who declared:

Geodesists have long drawn attention to the fact that leveling data should be used as evidence of crustal movement only with caution. The differences in altitude of leveling sections are mostly reliable only to the order of a millimeter because of measurement error; however, movements of ground and structure can multiply the measurement error. A difference in compared altitude values can also stem from adjustment of different leveling networks. For investigation of changes of level, only one and the same network specially stabilized for this purpose and always measured by the same methods is suitable.

FENNOSCANDIAN—GREAT LAKES ANALOGY

Numerous comparisons have been made of the postglacial land uplift of Fennoscandia and the Great Lakes Region (e.g., De Geer, 1892; Gutenberg, 1933, 1941, 1954; Flint, 1957) which stressed the over-all similarity of uplift in the two areas but did not compare in detail the relationships between maximum depressions, distances from their respective ice centers, and the rates of modern uplift.

If the two regions are analogous, it would seem that an examination of the rate and extent of modern land uplift in Fennoscandia would aid in locating, at least approximately, the zero isobase of modern land uplift in the region which had been covered by the Laurentide ice sheet. Although the Fennoscandian ice sheet was smaller than the Laurentide sheet, both areas had approximately the same thickness of ice, 10,000+ feet (2,500+ meters), and consequently about the same depth of depression of the crust. Therefore the distance from the ice center to the zero

isobase in the Great Lakes-Hudson Bay area should be roughly equal to the distance from the Fennoscandian ice center to the zero isobase at Leningrad, U.S.S.R.

The Fennoscandian uplift values in Table 2-A are from Kääriäinen (1953, p. 59, Fig. 4); distances were measured from the location of the axis of maximum ice thickness in eastern Sweden (Flint, 1957, p. 368, Plate 5) to each of the twelve tide gages. The distances from the Laurentide ice divide to points in the Great Lakes-Hudson Bay region (Table 2-B) were determined from the Glacial Map of Canada (Geological Association of Canada, 1958).

A plot of the uplift of the Finnish tide gage stations, determined by precise leveling (in feet per 100 years), against their distances (in miles) from the Fennoscandian axis of maximum ice thickness reveals that the distribution of points lies almost in a straight line—the slope of the line fitted by the method of least squares gives a modern rate of uplift of 3.36 feet/450 miles/100 years or 0.75 foot/100 miles/100 years. This rate of 0.75 foot/100 miles/100 years might then be assumed to be of the proper order of magnitude for the modern Laurentide land uplift.

If the analogy with Fennoscandia holds, the zero isobase of the land uplift would follow along a line extending down from the western fifth of Hudson Bay to the southwestern shore of James Bay (just southwest of Moosonee, Ontario) then to the vicinity of Kempt Lake, Quebec, crossing the St. Lawrence River about 20 miles northeast of Quebec, Quebec. The relationship of Churchill, Manitoba, to the zero isobase, i.e., Churchill

TABLE 2-A

FENNOSCANDIAN UPLIFT RATES AND DISTANCES

Finnish Tide Gages	Distance from Axis of Maximum Ice Thickness		Yearly Uplift in mm and Mean Error By Precise Leveling	Uplift in Feet/100 Years
	Kilometers	Miles		
1. Leppäluoto	134	83	8.80 \pm 0.33	2.69
2. Vaskiluoto	141	87	8.77 \pm 0.30	2.68
3. Horankallio	146	91	9.02 \pm 0.43	2.75
4. Kaskinen	184	114	7.66 \pm 0.32	2.34
5. Kemi	190	118	8.52 \pm 0.53	2.60
6. Toppila	196	122	8.25 \pm 0.43	2.52
7. Mäntyluoto	258	160	6.96 \pm 0.25	2.12
8. Rauma	296	184	6.82 \pm 0.28	2.08
9. Ruissalo	383	238	5.30 \pm 0.28	1.62
10. Hanko	460	286	3.58 \pm 0.35	1.09
11. Helsinki	503	312	2.90 \pm 0.25	0.88
12. Hamina	557	346	2.70 \pm 0.24	0.82
Leningrad, USSR	717	446	0.00	0.00

TABLE 2-B

DISTANCES FROM THE LAURENTIDE ICE DIVIDE

	Approximate Distance from Ice Divide	
	Kilometers	Miles
1. Father Point, Quebec	645	400
2. James Bay (Moosonee [Collis]), Ont.	750	490
3. Kempt Lake Quebec	805	500
4. Ottawa, Ontario	1040	645
5. Churchill, Manitoba	1060	660
6. Lake Ontario (Kingston, Ontario)	1210	750
7. Lake Huron (Manitoulin Island, Ontario)	1255	780
8. Lake Michigan-Huron (Mackinaw City, Mich.)	1380	855
9. Lake Superior (Duluth, Minnesota)	1400	870
10. Lake Erie (Buffalo, New York)	1430	885
11. Lake Michigan (Milwaukee, Wisconsin)	1790	1110

is c 100 miles farther away from the ice center than the presumed zero isobase, may support those investigators who deny the existence of land uplift at Churchill (Tyrrell, 1896; Johnson, 1939; Cooke, 1942; Williams, 1949) as opposed to those who claim that up to c 2 meters (6.6 ft) of uplift per century is taking place at Churchill (Bell, 1897; Gutenberg, 1941, 1942, 1954).

It is possible that the ice which covered Churchill came from the ice divide to the west of Hudson Bay; if this were the case, Churchill, being about 285 miles from the western ice divide, would have a modern land uplift of about one foot per century (again applying the modern Fennoscandian rate of uplift).

The tide gage at Father Point, Quebec (being about 400 miles from the Laurentide ice divide), is located within the proposed area of uplift and could be undergoing an uplift of c 0.37 ft/100 years (based on the modern Fennoscandia rate). The importance of uplift at Father Point, Quebec, lies in the fact that it is one of the tidal bench marks upon which the Canadian precise level net is based; furthermore it is the starting point for the determination of the new International Datum for the Great Lakes.

The advisability of using the tide gage at Father Point may be questioned for three reasons:

(a) The gage is located within the area of postglacial uplift. If uplift is now occurring, and if corrections are not made for the uplift, precise levelings taken a number of decades apart would show an

apparent subsidence of the land;

(b) the gage is situated near the small end of a "funnel" formed by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the estuary of the St. Lawrence River and the St. Lawrence River. The convergence of the shorelines greatly increases the influence of meteorological effects (see pp. 58-59, 73-75), which in turn makes difficult the determination of an accurate mean sea level; and

(c) the Father Point tide gage is on the eastern side of an ancient fault zone (Logan's Line), whereas the greater part of the Canadian level net and the whole of the Great Lakes region lies to the west of the fault zone. Although the fault zone is an ancient one, it would be prudent not to have the key tide gage of a leveling net and the greater part of the net on opposite sides of a fault zone.

The modern zero isobase of postglacial land uplift cannot be in the known area of horizontality (i.e., south west of the Nipissing zero isobase). Moreover if the modern zero isobase were in the vicinity of the southwestern shore of James Bay; then, as is indicated in Table 2-B and Plate I, the postglacial uplift would take place northeast of a line which passes near the southwestern shore of James Bay and which curves eastward so as to cross the St. Lawrence River just north of Quebec, Quebec. Under these circumstances, the maximum possible southern extent of postglacial crustal movement would include almost all of Lake Superior, less than the northern one-fourth of Lake Michigan, less than the

northern two-thirds of Lake Huron and less than the northern three-fourths of Lake Ontario. The minimum extent of the southern boundary of uplift on the other hand would be somewhere near James Bay—which would mean that modern land uplift in the Great Lakes region would be nonexistent. The actual southern limit of uplift should lie somewhere between these two extremes—probably closer to the Great Lakes than to James Bay.

(IV. PREVIOUS DETERMINATIONS OF RATES OF UPLIFT

Rates of uplift in the Great Lakes region have been computed by various investigators who used Gilbert's method of calculation based on the principle of "water leveling" (see pp. 7-11, 40, 68-69). Examples of the magnitude of uplift in the Great Lakes are given in Table 3, which also indicates the direction of uplift between the gages of each pair of gages. The land is uplifted in a direction extending from the geographic location of the first gage of the pair toward the second gage.

The directions of uplift in Table 4 were found by projecting the isobases of former glacial lake shoreline features through the locations of the gages; the gage of a particular pair which was on the higher isobase was considered to be the gage which was "upslope." Thus the directions of land uplift in Table 4 are based on uplift which warped former shorelines, whereas the directions in Table 3 represent modern uplift calculated from lake-level gage records.

If the directions of uplift between the pairs of gages in Table 3 are compared with the directions of uplift between the same pairs of gages in Table 4, it will be found that the direction of uplift will be reversed for certain pairs of gages, e.g., Marquette-Duluth, Conneaut-Cleveland, Oswego-Charlotte, etc. In cases of discrepancy the directions, and therefore the rates, in Table 3 must be incorrect.

TABLE 3

EXAMPLES OF PREVIOUS DETERMINATIONS OF RATES
OF UPLIFT IN FEET/100 MILES/100 YEARS

After	Lake Superior		Lake Mich.-Huron		Lake Erie		Lake Ontario	
	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min
Gilbert (1896-97, p. 636)	--	--	0.43 ^a	0.39 ^b	0.46 ^c	--	0.37 ^d	--
Moore (1922, pp. 154, 181)	0.27 ^e	0.26 ^f	0.27 ^a	0.24 ^g	1.04 ^h	0.38 ⁱ	0.74 ^j	0.32 ^k
Gutenberg (1933, p. 457)	0.84 ^l	0.12 ^m	1.08 ⁿ	0.01 ^o	0.83 ^h	0.36 ⁱ	6.63 ^p	0.28 ^q
Gutenberg (1941, p. 742)	0.61 ^l	0.03 ^m	0.48 ^r	0.09 ^s	0.55 ^t	0.0	1.34 ^p	0.06 ^v
Moore (1948, p. 700-701)	0.44 ^w	0.07 ^x	0.35 ^r	0.07 ^o	0.34 ^y	0.09 ^u	0.57 ^z	0.13 ^{aa}

Land is uplifted in the direction of the second gage site.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| a. Milwaukee-Port Austin | o. Harbor Beach-Escanaba |
| b. Milwaukee-Escanaba | p. Kingston-Cape Vincent |
| c. Cleveland-Port Colborne | q. Port Dalhousie-Kingston |
| d. Charlotte-Sacketts Harbor | r. Harbor Beach-Collingwood |
| e. Marquette-Sault Ste. Marie | s. Calumet Harbor-Harbor Beach |
| f. Marquette-Duluth | t. Port Stanley-Port Colborne |
| g. Milwaukee-Harbor Beach | u. Cleveland-Port Stanley |
| h. Cleveland-Amherstberg | v. Kingston-Oswego |
| i. Cleveland-Buffalo | w. Marquette-Port Arthur |
| j. Oswego-Charlotte | x. Marquette-Houghton |
| k. Oswego-Toronto | y. Conneaut-Cleveland |
| l. Duluth-Port Arthur | z. Port Dalhousie-Oswego |
| m. Michipicoten-Port Arthur | aa. Oswego-Cape Vincent |
| n. Calumet Harbor-Milwaukee | |

TABLE 4

POSSIBLE DIRECTION OF UPLIFT BETWEEN GAGE SITES AS INFERRED FROM
RELATIONSHIP TO ISOBASES OF FORMER GLACIAL LAKE FEATURES

Duluth-Marquette	<u>Lake Superior</u>	Marquette-Port Arthur
Duluth-Port Arthur	Port Arthur-Michipicoten	Marquette-Michipicoten
Duluth-Michipicoten	Marquette-Sault Ste. Marie	
	Marquette-Houghton	
Milwaukee-Port Austin	<u>Lake Michigan-Huron</u>	Harbor Beach-Escanaba
Milwaukee-Harbor Beach	Calumet Harbor-Harbor Beach	Harbor Beach-Goderich
Milwaukee-Escanaba	Grand Haven-Harbor Beach	Harbor Beach-Calcite
Milwaukee-Bay City	Sturgeon Bay-Harbor Beach	
Calumet Harbor-Milwaukee	Harbor Beach-Collingwood	
	Harbor Beach-Mackinaw City	
Cleveland-Port Colborne	<u>Lake Erie</u>	Toledo-Cleveland
Cleveland-Buffalo	Cleveland-Port Stanley	Port Stanley-Port Colborne
Cleveland-Amherstburg	Cleveland-Erie	Port Colborne-Buffalo
	Cleveland-Conneaut	
Charlotte-Sacketts Harbor	<u>Lake Ontario</u>	Toronto-Oswego
Charlotte-Oswego	Kingston-Cape Vincent	Toronto-Kingston
Port Niagara-Oswego	(zero uplift-same isobase)	Toronto-Cape Vincent
Olcott-Oswego	Port Dalhousie-Oswego	
Oswego-Kingston	Port Dalhousie-Kingston	
	Port Dalhousie-Toronto	

Note: Land is uplifted in the direction of the second gage site, i.e., uplifted to the northeast.

Earlier Discussions Of Errors

As has been stated previously, the fundamental assumption which underlies water-leveling and the determination of Great Lakes rates of uplift is that the summer season mean lake surface is level and may be used as a plane of reference. The importance of this concept must be stressed, for obviously if the mean lake surfaces are not level during the summer months, comparisons cannot be made between the gage differences of two gages over a period of time due to the lack of a standard reference point. If gages are compared by means of a lake surface which is not level, then the rates of uplift which result from the comparison are not valid.

GILBERT'S INITIAL STUDY (1896-97)

The problem of determining a level lake surface, as well as the effects of the various other factors which influence the taking of accurate water-level measurements, was completely understood by G. K. Gilbert who made the first computation of modern rates of crustal movement in the Great Lakes. His understanding of the types of errors involved, their importance, and the means of avoiding or eliminating them was not approached by subsequent investigators. The following quotation is taken from Gilbert's (1896-97, pp. 641-645) chapter "Plans For Precise Measurement"—plans which, if they had been followed and developed, would have largely eliminated the various types of error which prevent the accurate measurement of water-level elevations.

Gilbert (pp. 643-644) explained that:

In bays and estuaries there are local temporary variations occasioned by the floods of tributary streams.

There are solar and lunar tides, small as compared to those of the ocean, but not so small that they may be neglected.

The wind pushes the lake water before it, piling it up on lee shores and lowering the level on weather shores. During great storms these changes have a magnitude of several feet, and the effect of light wind is distinctly appreciable. Even the land and sea breezes, set up near the shore by contrasts of surface temperature, have been found to produce measurable effects on the water level.

There is also an influence from atmospheric pressure. When the air is in equilibrium, if that ever occurs, the pressure is the same on all parts of the lake surface, and the equilibrium of the lake is not disturbed; but when the air pressure varies from point to point this variation of pressure is a factor in the equilibrium of the water surface, the surface being comparatively depressed where the air pressure is greater and elevated where it is less.

When a storm wind ceases, the water not merely flows back to its normal position but is carried by momentum beyond, and an oscillation is thus set up which continues for an indefinite period. A similar oscillation is started whenever the equilibrium is disturbed by differences of atmospheric pressure; and these swaying motions, called seiches, ..., persist for long periods. In fact, they bridge over the intervals from impulse to impulse, so that the water of the Great Lakes never comes to rest.

.....

These various influences work independently but simultaneously, and their effects are blended in the actual oscillations of the water surface at any point. In using the water surface for the purpose of precise leveling, it is necessary to take account of all such factors and make provision for the avoidance or correction of the errors they tend to produce.

.....

The gage employed for the determination of water height should be of some automatic type, giving a continuous record. This is necessary in order that the study of the record may furnish data for the complete elimination of errors from tides, seiches, and land and sea breezes. ... It should be installed as to be secure from settling. The height of its zero should be readily verifiable.

Near each station there should be at least three benches, constructed with special reference to permanence and stability.

They should be independent of one another and independent of other structures.

Pressure of the air should be continuously recorded by a barograph, carefully standardized. A wind vane and anemometer should give automatic records.

Although Gilbert realized the importance of the factors which affect the determination of rates of uplift, he was limited, as in any pioneer study, by the data available. Gilbert attempted to avoid the effect of wind slope by using only those records which were taken on days of very light wind; he was no doubt unaware of the fact that wind-drift currents (hence the piling up of water) are the result of the effects of wind stresses which were applied up to 10-12 days before the day of measurement (Millar, 1952, pp. 336-337; Ayers, et al., 1958, pp. 112-115; Ayers, 1959, pp. 4-5).

Gilbert (pp. 637-638) discussed the other sources of errors as follows:

The probable errors of the individual measurements are rather high, ranging from 14 to 50 per cent, and this suggests the possibility that the closeness of their correspondence may be accidental. It should be remembered also that at two or three stations there was reason to believe that the gage zeros were settling during the period in which the observations were made, and the results involve the doubtful assumption that the rate of settling was uniform. There is room for doubt as to the precision of the instrumental leveling; in only a few instances is the fact of duplicate measurements recorded, and single measurements are notoriously insecure. Error was doubtless admitted by ignoring the effects of barometric gradient. River floods may have introduced errors. ... There may also be personal equations of observers, especially as the gages at pairs of stations were not in every case of the same type. For all these reasons I am disposed to ascribe only a low order of precision to the deduced rate of change, and regard it as indicating the order of magnitude rather than the actual magnitude of the differential movement.

"LEVEL" LAKE SURFACES

The validity of the assumption that the Great Lakes water surfaces are level during the summer was questioned in 1897 by William T. Blunt, engineer of the U. S. Deep Waterways Commission, in "Effects of Gales on Lake Erie" (Blunt, 1897, pp. 155-168).

Blunt (p. 156) declared:

In the survey of the Northern and Northwestern Lakes the assumption was made that the mean surface of each lake was level within the limit of possible instrumental errors in traversing its length, and all heights and gauges west of Oswego have been based on this assumption. The actual period of observations used to transfer the level by lake surface was from May 11 to August 31, 1875; and while it is certain that the eminent officer then in charge of the survey took every precaution to obtain accurate results, it will still be a matter of scientific if not of practical interest to have a verification of these elevations. When we consider the marked effects of even light winds on the surface of Lake Erie, the very decided effects of strong continuous winds, and the extraordinary effects of gales, in connection with the fact that the great preponderance of winds is from the westward, the proposition that even the mean surface is level appears somewhat clouded; it at least requires verification.

John F. Hayford, geodesist and engineer, completed an investigation in 1922 which also refutes the assumption that summer mean lake surfaces are level; the results of the investigation were published by the Carnegie Institute of Washington in Publication 317, "Effects of Wind and of Barometric Pressure on the Great Lakes."

The principal problem of determining accurate lake-level elevations was stated by Hayford (p. 2), who declared:

As the investigation progressed, it gradually became more clearly evident that the largest and most serious errors encountered were those which arise from the fact that the

surface of any one of the Great Lakes at any given instant is not level except by accident. The surface has a slope at every point due to the influence of winds and barometric pressures.

Hayford, for the most part, dealt with the short-term departures from level; however his discussion of tide gage records indicates that he also realized the importance of the seasonal effect of wind and barometric pressure (the conclusions reached apply equally well to lake-level gages). Hayford (p. 132) pointed out that:

It should not be overlooked in this connection that the prevailing winds and the prevailing barometric gradients tend to be seasonal, to be repeated each year, and that therefore the taking of a mean for several years is of only moderate effectiveness in reducing the error in the mean. The monthly values of mean sea-level at various tide gages support the statement by showing a seasonal variation, as a rule, and thereby incidentally indicating that the wind effects and barometric effects are certainly decidedly appreciable in the monthly means.

The final chapter of Hayford's book dealt with the "Application to Determination of Tilting of the Great Lakes Region." There Hayford (p. 133) said:

The rate of tilting as derived was .0042 foot per mile per century—an exceedingly small rate of change. The conclusion was derived from apparent changes of relative elevation of the water surface as measured at different gages on Lakes Michigan-Huron, Erie, and Ontario in different years. The amounts of change involved are of the order of 0.1 to 0.2 foot in a period of 20 to 40 years. Evidently, when such small changes are in question there is more chance of securing the necessary accuracy if corrections as large as those shown in Tables Nos. 19 to 23, pages 80-96 of this publication, for barometric effect and wind effects, are taken into account. ...

.....

The deductions of Gilbert are probably correct in the main. But a new investigation based on observed elevations of water surface corrected for wind effect and barometric effects would have greater accuracy and is desirable.

Sherman Moore's first determination of rates of crustal movement in the Great Lakes region (examples of which are given in Table 3) was also published in 1922. In his first paper, "Tilt of the Earth in Great Lakes Region," Moore devoted several paragraphs to the errors which affect lake-level gage readings; this discussion of errors is in sharp contrast to his second paper published in 1948 which contained only two sentences referring to errors (one remark is on bench mark stability and the other suggests that scatter of points may be due to varying wind and barometric conditions).

One statement is particularly pertinent to the discussion of "level" lake surfaces. Moore (1922, p. 153-154) declared that:

The lakes themselves are not always level. Prevailing winds and continued differences in barometric pressure cause tilting of the surface which may last for considerable periods of time. These inequalities will usually balance in a long period of time, but even a yearly mean is not free from their effects.

Apparently Moore did not realize that the second sentence of the quotation nullified the assumption—that the summer mean lake surface is level—upon which his method of determining uplift rates is based.

Beno Gutenberg's initial paper on "Tilting Due to Glacial Melting" (1933) contains only one reference (on bench mark stability) to errors in the treatment of Great Lakes rates of uplift. His second paper, published in 1941, discussed the influence of the following factors upon the recording of tide gage elevations: meteorological effects, eustatic changes, water and shore conditions, local movements, effects of the

method of observation, effects of errors, and land movement. His observations relating to the measurement of lake-level elevations on the other hand were scanty. Gutenberg (p. 740) said:

Absolute values (corresponding to the column 6 in Table 4) were not calculated, as they are influenced by the general change in the lake level due to precipitation, flow in rivers, vertical movements of the region of the outlet, wind and other causes.

In addition, he (p. 745) said:

Apparently, there are meteorological conditions which affect the mean lake level at the various stations on Lake Ontario more than those in the other lakes and therefore it is to be expected that the results for Lake Ontario are less accurate.

It may be seen from the foregoing paragraphs that the existence of factors which prevent a lake surface from being a level surface was known to those investigators who used the lake surface as a datum plane in the comparison of pairs of gages in their attempts to measure rates of crustal movement. However these investigators seemingly regarded the influence of meteorological effects, etc., as constituting only a temporary disturbance of level and therefore continued to use uncorrected lake surface elevations in their calculations.

OTHER ERRORS

The existence of other types of error which affect the taking of lake-level elevations was known to those investigators who measured rates of crustal movement. This fact is demonstrated by the papers of Sherman Moore, engineer of the U. S. Lake Survey, who discussed the various types of errors in his first paper on rates of tilting (1922) and

in his gage histories (1939-44). The following quotations from Moore's 1922 paper point out the poor quality of the early measurements—measurements incorporated in the calculation of rates of uplift which, according to Moore (1922, p. 182), averaged 0.43 ± 0.07 foot/100 miles/100 years.

Moore (1922, pp. 153-155, 181) stated that:

Practically, the determination is complicated by errors arising from several causes. Gage readings are frequently incorrect due to mistakes in reading the gage, but more frequently to failure to check the zero of the gage back to stable benchmarks sufficiently often. Benchmarks are not always stable, but are subject to local settlement. Benchmarks are frequently destroyed, and unless there is more than one benchmark at the point, later records are not comparable. ...

... From 1860 the records are complete at some points, but until about 1872 the gages, in the majority of cases, were poorly cared for, and were not properly referenced to fixed benchmarks. In the seventies more care was given to the gages, and levels connecting their zeros with fixed benchmarks were run at frequent intervals. Unfortunately the records of the actual gage readings are not available. Tabulations of lake levels referred to some plane of reference are in the published reports, but the elevations are frequently inconsistent, contain some gross errors, and as a whole they are not fully reliable. ... During the period 1880 to 1899, the gages apparently received but little care, and at points where there existed unstable conditions, the records have but little value. Since 1899 the gages have been well cared for, self-registering instruments have been installed, and frequent check levels have been run. The locations of many of the present gages are not the same as those of the earlier ones, and even where the location is the same it has been impossible in some cases to recover the old benchmarks.

.....
At Harbor Beach the records began in 1875. The records before 1900 are staff gage readings, and there is evidence that the gage was not well cared for. There were frequent changes in gages and benchmarks, but the majority of the benchmarks have been recovered and their elevations determined. The records as a whole are probably good, although considerable variation between individual years is noted.
.....

For Lake Erie, the gage at Cleveland is standard. The record goes back to 1860, and although the history of the gage is at times obscure, the elevations are believed to be good. At Buffalo a self-registering gage has been maintained since 1899. The records before this time were staff readings made on various gages at different points in the harbor. No level connections between the earlier and the later work can be found.

... At Amherstburg there are records of a self-registering gage since 1899, but the observations scatter rather widely due probably to a variable fall in the river. ...

Oswego, at the present time, is accepted as the standard gage for Lake Ontario. Its history in the earlier years is somewhat obscure, but the elevations since 1860, have been accepted as correct. Until about 1880 Charlotte was considered the standard gage. Several attempts have been made to obtain something consistent out of the records at this point, but never with any success. ... The gages and reference points have always settled, although it is believed that the original benchmark on the lighthouse has been stable.

At Port Dalhousie, actual gage readings and direct levels to the benchmark are available for 1875, at the time of the transfer of precise levels. The records for earlier years are referred to depths over the lower sill of the lock, and to make them agree with other records on Lake Ontario it is necessary to assume changes in the elevation of the sill as great as two feet, which of course is impossible. ...

At Toronto there are records of the water surface elevation since 1800, made by the harbor master. It is believed that they are all referred to the same benchmark, and that the latter has been stable. However, various devices have been in use to indicate within the harbor-master's office, the stage of the lake, and these have usually been faulty. This has resulted in errors, which, due to failure to check the accuracy of the indicating mechanism have at times been carried through several years. As a result the observations scatter very badly, but a mean line is probably very near to the truth.

The gage records at Kingston fall into two groups, 1895-1901, and 1908-1919. The earlier records are depths over the invert of the dry dock, the elevation of which was determined by comparison with Tibbetts Point. The later group is referred to benchmarks the elevations of which were determined by another water level transfer. So far as is known there is no instrumental level connection between the two groups. The records of the self-registering gage at Tibbetts Point, maintained since 1901, scatter badly due to local conditions, and the determinations of a line through them is unsatisfactory. ...

ERRORS DUE TO GAGE LOCATION

Two types of gage locations are important in affecting the accuracy of lake-level gage readings, which in turn influences the accuracy of precise leveling and rates of uplift. The first type of location is the relation of the gage site to the local geography and underwater conditions, and the second type is the relation of the gage site to the area of horizontality of past uplift.

The effect of local topography and depth of water upon the height of the water surface has long been known (e.g., Humboldt, 1849, pp. 309, 310; Whittlesey, 1859, pp. 6, 8-10, 18, 24; Henry, 1902, p. 13; etc.), and the importance of gage site location with respect to the area of horizontality of former glacial lake shorelines was clearly explained by Frank B. Taylor (1927) in a paper to the Michigan Academy of Science Paper entitled "The Present and Recent Rate of Land-Tilting in the Region of the Great Lakes."

An example of the effect of gage location near a river is given by the monthly mean elevation sheets for Oswego, New York before 1932 (U. S. Lake Survey, n.d.) where a note at the bottom of the elevation sheet said:

The records have been carefully kept and are reliable, but do not always indicate the stage of Lake Ontario, as the gage readings are influenced by high stages of water in Oswego River. These high stages usually occur in spring months, and give readings from 0.2 ft. to 0.3 ft., or even more, above the level of Lake Ontario.

The interconnecting ramifications of the effects of lake-level gage locations and their importance to precise leveling and accurate computation

of rates of uplift is very well brought out by the relationships of four gages on Lake Ontario.

Sherman Moore (1941, pp. 2-3) in his gage history of Tibbett's Point declared:

10. The gage record at Tibbett's Point is of but little value, due to local conditions which resulted in failure of the gage to give Lake Level. From the first, the gage was in the well from which water was drawn for the boilers in the fog signal station. The bottom to the southwest of the point is very flat and shallow, and to insure a supply of water in the well at low lake stages, a channel several hundred feet in length to deeper water was cut in the bottom. This was filled with large broken rock. With westerly winds, the seas running over the flat bottom and beach would hold the water in the well above lake level, and the gage would read too high.

.....

14. The elevations at Tibbett's Point here listed do not give true elevations of Lake Ontario within about 0.15 ft. The discrepancy is a function of the direction and velocity of the wind.

The significance of the above quotation may be seen when its conclusions are compared to the following material from the gage histories of the Canadian Hydrographic Service (n.d.):

Elevations at Kingston on 1903 Datum are based on a comparison of float gage readings for 1909 and 1911 to 1915, with water surface elevations at Tibbett's Point. ...

Elevations at Toronto on 1903 Datum are based on comparisons of float gauge readings from 1907 to 1909 with water surface elevations at Tibbett's Point and from 1917 to 1925 with water surface elevations at Kingston.

Elevations at Port Dalhousie on 1903 Datum are based on a comparison of float gauge readings from 1914 to 1917 with water surface elevations at Kingston.

If the elevations at Tibbett's Point are "of but little value," and if the elevations at Kingston, Ontario are based on the Tibbett's Point

readings, then their accuracy must be doubtful. Furthermore, if the elevations at Port Dalhousie and Toronto are based on the Kingston float gage elevations, they must also be of questionable accuracy.

This chain of dependent elevations helps to explain why precise leveling (at its present state of accuracy) cannot be used to determine rates of crustal movement in the Great Lakes region (see pp. 87-90).

In view of the long history of the effect of topography and water depth upon the water-level and upon its recording at water-level gages, and especially in view of F. B. Taylor's explanation of the importance of gage site location with respect to the area of horizontality, it is difficult to understand why the importance of gage location to the calculation of rates of crustal movement was not realized by those investigators who determined rates of uplift for the Great Lakes region.

It is particularly difficult to understand how B. Gutenberg (1941, pp. 740-741) could say:

From the fact that there is practically no relative change between Calumet Harbor and Milwaukee on Lake Michigan, and between Port Stanley and Cleveland on Lake Erie, it is concluded that the zero isobase runs to the north of these stations, and consequently that the zero assumed for these two lakes approximates the absolute zero. This agrees with the findings of Taylor (1926) that, at least since the time of the Nipissing Great Lakes, which was about 5000 years ago according to Antevs (1939), there has been no noticeable uplift in the region.

and then use Calumet Harbor, Milwaukee, Cleveland or Port Stanley as one gage of 10 pairs of gages out of a total of 14 gage pairs on Lakes Michigan-Huron and Erie. It is obvious that uplift cannot be measured in an

area where uplift has stopped. Nor can accurate rates of uplift be found where one gage of a pair is in an area where uplift has stopped, the other gage is in an area of uplift, and the point between the two gages at which uplift begins is unknown.

✓ (GREAT LAKES RATES OF CRUSTAL MOVEMENT BY PRECISE LEVELING

One attempt has been made to determine absolute rates of crustal movement in the Great Lakes area by means of precise leveling. The results of this study are found in Sherman Moore's (1948) paper "Crustal Movement In The Great Lakes Area," pages 702-706 and Plate I.

As a result of the factors which are discussed in pages 87-90 of this paper and to several erroneous assumptions by Moore, these rates of crustal movement are not valid. The initial point for the determination of elevations for the Great Lakes area is Rensselaer (Greenbush), New York, and it is for this point that the first erroneous value for the rate of crustal movement was computed. If the initial rate of crustal movement is incorrect, the values for the other points in the leveling net are probably also incorrect.

Moore (1948, p. 702) stated:

Between mean tide, or half tide, at New York, which at that point are practically identical, and Rensselaer, near Albany on the Hudson River, there are levels in 1857, 1877, and 1934, all run by the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey. By the levels of 1934, the land at Rensselaer is lower by 0.849 foot than by the levels of 1877, corresponding to a subsidence at a rate of 1.49 feet per 100 years. The elevation by the levels of 1857 falls only 0.02 foot from a line through the other two points. This early determination

has not been used, as it was considered less accurate than the later levels, but its inclusion would have had only a negligible effect on the rate.

The specious reasoning underlying the determination of this rate of subsidence at Rensselaer is revealed by an examination of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey precise leveling elevations of benchmark Gristmill at Greenbush (Rensselaer), New York, and by the leveling net adjustments which were made by the Coast and Geodetic Survey.

The elevations (Comstock, 1876, p. 71; U. S. Deep Waterways Comm., 1897, pp. 70-71; Hayford, 1900, pp. 449, 540; Hayford, 1903, pp. 196, 289, 378, 555; Bowie, 1914, p. 105) are as follows:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Elevation in Feet</u>
1857 ^a	15.37
1877 ^a	14.728
1894 ^a	13.645
1899	13.577
1902	13.873
1903	13.863
1907	13.863
1912	13.865
1929	13.618
1934 ^a	13.845

^aLevel lines run by the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.

The most recent determinations of bench mark Gristmill based on the 1929 adjustment (Gossett, 1961, letter) are as follows:

13.619 feet	(1902 leveling)
13.553 feet	(1934 leveling)
13.501 feet	(1955 leveling)

The changes of elevation in the above paragraphs must be examined with the following facts in mind (see p. 84): (a) First order leveling

by the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey began in 1878; therefore the levels of 1857 and 1877 were not of first-order precision; (b) the first adjustment to the level net occurred in 1899, partial adjustments were made in 1903, 1907 and 1912, and a complete adjustment was made in 1929 (Rappleye, 1948a, p. 1). For these reasons the logical choice of the early elevation for Gristmill (bearing in mind the precision necessary to calculate rates of crustal movement) would be the elevation of 13.577 feet resulting from the first adjustment in 1899.

The explanation for the changes in elevations at Gristmill lies not only in the fact that better equipment and techniques were used in the later levelings (1894, 1934, 1955), but also to the fact that new leveling lines and better determinations of sea level were introduced into the precise leveling net with each adjustment or readjustment to the net. As was stated in the U. S. Deep Waterways Commission Report of 1897 (p. 71):

In 1894 the Coast and Geodetic Survey ran a line of precise levels along the Hudson River, starting from the bench mark at Dobb's Ferry. The superintendent gives the elevation of the bench mark on the gristmill as 13.645 feet, with the following note: "The difference between the above (13.645) and any former results is probably due to the more perfect determination of tidal level than to any other cause.

In other words, the adjusted elevations are not necessarily the result of a subsidence or uplift at the bench mark, but, instead, represent the introduction of new information into the precise leveling net. The bench mark shifting shown by the elevations is almost purely a "paper" movement.

If the elevations for the years 1877 and 1894 had been used, the subsidence would have been 1.083 feet/17 years, or 6.37 feet/100 years; or, if the years 1899 and 1902 had been used, the subsidence would have been 0.296 foot/3 years or 9.87 feet/100 years.

In his section on "Reduction to Sea Level," S. Moore (pp. 704-705) states:

For a correlated picture of the movement as a whole, the observations must be reduced to a common datum. The only practical datum for this purpose seems to be sea level. If one admits a changing sea level there is no means of determining whether the movement is uplift or subsidence. Great variations in the relative elevation of land and ocean level during geologic time seems well established, but it seems improbable that there has been any appreciable progressive change in the volume of oceanic water in the last 100 years.

As was discussed in pages 45-48, 56-58, of this paper, there is a world-wide change in sea level of c 0.36 foot/100 years, as well as a change in sea level at New York City (the starting point for Great Lakes leveling lines) corresponding to 0.78 foot/100 years. One can admit a changing sea level and by measuring the change and correcting for it, decide whether a movement is subsidence or uplift. The height of the ocean level in the geologic past has little or no bearing on the problem.

Significance of Previous Determinations

An investigation of the gage histories of U. S. Lake Survey gages (Sherman Moore, 1939-1944) and of the gage histories of the Canadian Hydrographic Service emphasizes the many opportunities, particularly in

the earlier measurements, for error to enter into the determination of lake-level elevations due to equipment limitations, shifting bench marks, incorrect or lost records, observer mistakes, gage locations, etc.

Rates of crustal movement in the Great Lakes region are determined from the gage differences of pairs of gages. The gage differences include not only the changes due to land uplift, but also the residual effects of wind set-up, the barometric pressure effect, the changing differences in seiche amplitudes, tidal differences, observer error, instrument error, bench mark changes, etc. While it is very probable that many of these effects are small in magnitude, or that many of them are opposite in sign and thus compensate each other, nevertheless the errors caused by these effects must be recognized and removed, or corrected, so that the true magnitude of the uplift may be approached as closely as possible. Because the magnitude of land uplift is so small, the combination of the various errors which are preserved in the lake-level gage records tend to completely mask its effect and make its detection with present methods difficult, if not impossible.

The change in the character of a plot of gage differences over a period of 95-96 years is illustrated graphically by Fig. 5 which shows gage differences between gage pairs on Lake Ontario and Lake Erie. The great decrease in the fluctuations of the gage differences as operator and instrument error was reduced by means of improved equipment, gage locations and gaging techniques is readily seen.

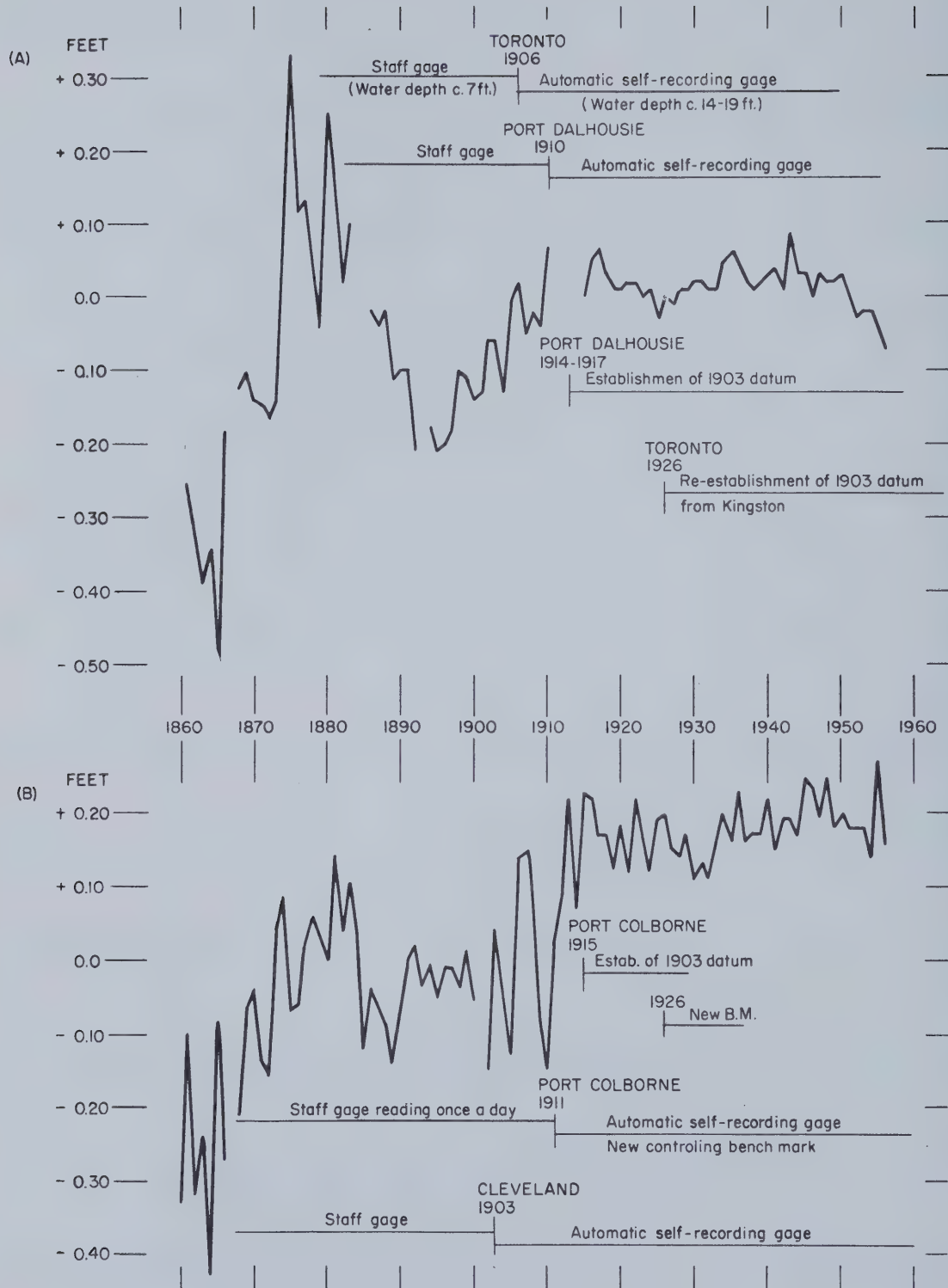


Fig. 5. Gage differences on Lake Ontario (A. Toronto minus Port Dalhousie) and Lake Erie (B. Cleveland minus Port Colborne) showing decrease in range of fluctuations with improved equipment, locations, and techniques.

The proportions of various types of error which distort true lake-level values changed throughout the period of record taking. In the earlier days of lake gaging, say before 1920, bench mark stability and instrument and operator error predominated, whereas the systematic errors caused by meteorological effects, tides, harbor effects, etc., were relatively small. After improved equipment, techniques, etc., removed the grosser aspects of instrument and operator error, the importance of meteorological effects, etc., grew proportionately.

At the present stage of lake-level gaging the greatest deviations from true lake-level elevations (on each lake—not referred to sea level) are due to meteorological effects and the effect of gage location. Before worth-while determinations of crustal movement can be made, corrections for these effects, as well as for the remaining instrument and operator errors, must be made.)

(The following section discussing modern rates of land uplift around Lake Erie points up the difficulties which arise when all of the aspects of a problem are not viewed in a coordinated manner—in this instance the failure to examine and analyze all aspects of the problem caused a case of "mistaken identity" to arise.

LAKE ERIE

An examination of Plate I reveals that Lake Erie and its shores have been completely within the area of horizontality since Nipissing time, a period of approximately 3000 years. Despite the fact that no uplift has

occurred for 3000 years, all of the determinations of rates of crustal movement (with the exception of Horton and Grunsky, 1927, p. 32) have found uplift around Lake Erie—the rates varying from 0.009 foot/100 miles/100 years (Moore, 1948) between Cleveland and Port Stanley (Gutenberg, 1941, finds zero uplift for the same pair) to 1.04 feet/100 miles/100 years (Moore, 1922) between Cleveland and Amherstberg (see Table 3).

As postglacial uplift probably ceased about 3000 years ago, the rates of the quantity called "crustal movement" must in actuality be rates of some other quantity. Because Great Lakes water-level gage records are not corrected for the factors which were discussed in Part II of this paper (pp. 41-76), the previously determined "rates of crustal movement" measured the change in the net difference of the accumulated effects and errors (chiefly meteorological) which are incorporated in the gage records. The "rates of crustal movement" would be more accurately labeled "average net setup" for the period of record of a given pair of gages.

The same method is used to determine rates of crustal movement in the entire Great Lakes region, and as this method has yielded rates of crustal movement up to 1.04 feet/100 miles/100 years in an area where uplift had ceased several thousand years ago, and as this rate exceeds all of the Nipissing rates (Table 1) and all but two of the computed modern rates (Table 3), it is reasonable to assume that the value of the rates of modern crustal movement, even the existence of modern crustal movement, around the Great Lakes is in doubt.

V. COMPUTATION AND CORRELATION OF METEOROLOGICAL EFFECTS AND GAGE DIFFERENCES

As has been pointed out previously, gage differences are the basis for computing rates of crustal movement and are also the basis for computing set-up between pairs of gages. The justification for using the same quantity as the basis for two entirely different phenomena is the assumption that winds over the Great Lakes in the summer months blow in opposing directions so that "the mean surface of each lake is level" (Comstock, 1882, p. 592) and, therefore, that set-up does not exist to any significant degree; consequently gage differences represent movement of the land between the gages of each pair.

If the winds over the Great Lakes do not neutralize each other's effects on the water surface during the summer months, i.e., if vector resultant winds from one quadrant predominate; then the wind from the prevailing direction will exert its influence and net set-up will occur in the direction of the prevailing wind. If net set-up does occur, a plot of the gage differences over a number of years will measure the average net set-up for that time, not the rates of crustal movement.

The crucial point is whether summer winds can produce a predominant summer vector resultant wind whose setup can be correlated with the magnitudes of the gage differences. If such a correlation can be shown, the rates of crustal movement which have been calculated heretofore are not valid.

Previous Statements of Westerly Prevailing Winds

Mark W. Harrington's (1895) comprehensive study Surface Currents of the Great Lakes included two tables of wind directions over the Great Lakes. In writing of the most frequent winds on the Great Lakes (as shown by compilation of tri-daily readings from 1871-1888) Harrington (p. vi) stated:

If we take the months May to September, inclusive, the numbers are N., 1; NE., 12; E., 0; SE., 10; S., 16; SW., 29; W., 13; NW., 7. This is 88 for these months, of which 33 per cent are SW; 15 percent W; and 8 percent NW.; or 56 percent from a westerly direction.

The prevailing character of the westerly winds at the lake station is shown still more clearly in the resultant wind directions (Table II):

The wind directions for the following stations were taken from Harrington's Table II (p. v):

	<u>June</u>	<u>July</u>	<u>Aug.</u>	<u>Sept.</u>	<u>Annual</u>
Buffalo	S.44 W.	S.58 W.	S.49 W.	S.52 W.	S.57 W.
Duluth	N.13 E.	N.14 W.	N. 3 W.	N. 5 W.	N. 7 W.
Oswego	S.61 W.	S.72 W.	S.53 W.	S.20 W.	S.55 W.
Rochester	S.80 W.	S.88 W.	S.76 W.	S.67 W.	S.75 W.
Toledo	S.40 W.	S.64 W.	S.67 W.	S.35 W.	S.57 W.

William T. Blunt's "Effects of Gales on Lake Erie" (1897, pp. 157-158, diagram no. 2) also contained tables and a graphic representation of winds as recorded at Toledo, Ohio (1891-95). Blunt's tables showed that winds from the southwest and west exceeded those from the northeast and east during eleven months of the year (including all of the summer months). Blunt (p. 158) stated that, "... the resultant movement and direction in the average months are most decidedly from the westward. ..." and "this

naturally tends to keep the mean level of the east end of the lake higher than that of the west end."

Wind directions of all stations, except Cleveland, around the American shore of Lake Erie (based on 15 years of observations), during the months of June, July, August and September blew from the southwest (from S 13° W to S 73° W) (Henry, 1902, p. 11). Regarding the wind directions at Cleveland, Ohio, A. J. Henry (p. 11) declared, "The unusually large number of southeasterly winds at this station is not clearly understood, unless as suggested by local forecast official Kenealy, of Cleveland, they are due to land and lake breezes."

A modern summary of Great Lakes wind velocities (USWB, 1959, pp. 13-14) confirms the earlier observations that the prevailing summer winds are from the southwest on Lakes Erie and Ontario and are from the westerly quadrant on Lakes Michigan, Huron and Superior.

As the preceding excerpts illustrate, it has been known for 60 or more years that the predominant wind direction for the Great Lakes is westerly; in addition, the prevailing southwesterly direction of summer winds on Lake Erie has also been recognized since the 1890's.

Because it has been known at least since the early nineteenth century (Dwight, 1822, p. 96; Hall, 1843, p. 200) that southwest winds on Lake Erie cause a rise of water level at the eastern end of the lake, and because it has also been known, since the 1890's (if not before), that southwest winds predominate during the summer months, it is surprising that the assumption that the summer season mean lake surface is

a level surface has been questioned only by William T. Blunt (see p. 102).

Present Study

A review of the material in the preceding sections prompted the decision to test the validity of the assumption which underlies water-leveling, as well as the determination of rates of crustal movement; the test to be by correlating the gage differences of a pair of gages on the Great Lakes with summer wind velocities on the same lake.

For a number of reasons Lake Erie was an ideal location for the correlation study; the more important reasons being:

(a) Lake Erie is oriented so as to be almost parallel with the prevailing winds of the summer months.

(b) Water-level gages (at Toledo and Buffalo) are located at the ends of the lake, and the direction of a line from Toledo to Buffalo is within 3° of the direction of the lake's axis.

(c) First-order U. S. Weather Bureau stations record wind velocities relatively near (9-18 miles) the gage sites and at two other points where the lake is divided approximately into thirds (Cleveland and Erie).

(d) Lake Erie is shallow (average depth c 58 feet) and the gage sites are at the converging ends of the lake; both factors increase the magnitude of set-up, which in turn, amplifies the relationship which exists between wind velocities and set-up (gage differences).

(e) Lake Erie is located wholly within the Nipissing area of horizontality; therefore postglacial uplift could not have occurred during modern times, and the rates of crustal movement which have been calculated must represent some other quantity.

Similarly the gage differences of gage pairs in the other Great Lakes could also be correlated with wind velocities. The gage pairs chosen should meet three requirements:

(1) The direction between the gage sites of the pair of gages must parallel, at least roughly, the direction of postglacial uplift (i.e., one gage should be about N 70° E from the other).

(2) Both gages of a gage pair must be north of the Nipissing zero isobase, and

(3) There must be nearby weather stations which record wind velocities and whose records are available.

These requirements restrict testable additional gages to two pairs. One pair (Duluth-Port Arthur) is located on Lake Superior, and the other pair (Toronto-Kingston) is on Lake Ontario. Although these gage pairs fill the requirements better than any of the other available gage pairs, serious deficiencies remain which greatly limit their usefulness; however the deficiencies serve to point out the need for more complete meteorological and lake-level data on the Great Lakes.

Owing to gage site locations as well as to the fact that the average angle between the summer wind direction (1950-59) and the direction of the

Duluth-Port Arthur axis was 41° , it is expected that the correlation between gage differences and wind velocities would be low. An examination of current charts of Lake Superior (Harrington, 1895, Lake Superior Chart; Millar, 1952, Fig. 5) reveals circumstances which would tend to support this expectation. The current from the area of Thunder Bay (Port Arthur) Ontario moves southwestward along the northwest shore of Lake Superior to an area somewhere between Grand Marais, Minnesota, and Devil's Island, Wisconsin, where it curves to the east. The current flowing along the northwest shore from Duluth moves northeastward to an area south-southwest of Grand Marais where it also curves to the east, or continues to curve around until it is flowing to the south-southwest. Thus the situation exists where the current direction at one gage is 180° from the current direction at the other gage; as setup is dependent upon the wind-drift current (which in this case is flowing in opposite directions) it is to be expected that a very low or non-existent correlation would be found.

The Toronto-Kingston gage pair on Lake Ontario meets the first two requirements satisfactorily, but proves to be inadequate on the third—that of nearby wind and barometric pressure observations. Wind and barometric pressures are recorded at the Class I weather station at Toronto at the western end of the lake, but records of wind velocities and barometric pressures are not available for the eastern end of Lake Ontario. The nearest available wind and barometric pressure observations were

taken at Trenton, Ontario, which is located only two-thirds of the distance from Toronto to Kingston. A gap in the Trenton records for the years 1953 and 1954 was filled in by wind observations taken at Main Duck Island. Main Duck Island has an excellent location in open water at the eastern end of the lake, but the observations were recorded by a radio beacon station which is a class c weather station (the Canadian Meteorological Division stations are classed as I, II, III and c). In addition the record at Trenton is available only to 1955.

Because wind and barometric pressure information is not representative of the eastern end of Lake Ontario (observations were made about 54 miles from Kingston), the correlation of gage differences between Toronto and Kingston and wind velocities should not be significant.

Lake Erie Winds

VECTOR WINDS

At the beginning of the study it was expected that mean wind velocities for the summer months could be obtained for the locations and years under investigation directly from the U. S. Weather Bureau Local Climatological Data and the Canadian Meteorological Branch Monthly Meteorological Summaries. However it soon became apparent that prevailing wind directions and average speeds from these compilations were not suitable for calculating set-up or for correlating with gage differences.

The wind speeds and directions reported in the Local Climatological

Data are determined as follows:

The prevailing wind directions for the month is the direction which has the greatest total number of hourly occurrences arrived at by the summation of hourly observations in Table B, Wind Direction and Speed Occurrences, published in the Local Climatological Data Supplement ... (Fox, 1960).

Average Wind Speed... at the foot of the column, enter the sum of the daily average hourly speeds, and the average of these speeds as obtained by dividing the sum by the number of days in the month. ... (U. S. Weather Bureau, 1959).

Wind speeds and directions arrived at in this manner are suitable for work in climatology, for evaporation and cooling studies, etc., but not for work which is concerned with transport, in this study with the transport of water. The transport of water by a wind-drift current is dependent upon the wind stress, which in turn depends upon vector winds.

Because vector wind speeds and directions are not published (or, except in certain studies, determined) for the Great Lakes, it was necessary to compute the vector winds for Lakes Erie, Ontario and Superior. The length of time required to plot the wind vectors restricted the time period of correlation to ten years (1950-59) for Lake Erie and Lake Superior. The lack of wind information imposed the eight year period (1948-55) for Lake Ontario.

The procedure which was used to plot the vector winds is given in pages 138-141. Tables 7-66, (pp. 180-227 of Appendix II) contain the daily, monthly and summer season vector winds for: (a) Lake Erie—Toledo, Ohio, and Buffalo, New York, (b) Lake Ontario—Toronto, Ontario, and Trenton, Ontario, and (c) Lake Superior—Duluth, Minnesota, and Fort

William/Port Arthur, Ontario.

Over-water vector resultant winds computed for the summer season (June, July, August and September) for Lake Erie (1950-59) and Lake Ontario (1948-55) are summarized in Table 5. The summer season vector resultant winds for Lake Superior are land station winds because an over-water:land wind ratio has not been determined for Lake Superior.

All studies have indicated that the prevailing summer wind directions for Lake Erie and Lake Ontario are from the southwestern quadrant, and that the summer prevailing wind directions for the other Great Lakes are from the western quadrant. Winds blowing over the water surface from the southwest cause a net set-up to occur—the water surface being depressed on the windward shore and piled up on the lee shore (see Fig. 4b). The set-up is a tilt of the lake surface—the tilt being up toward the northeast.

Postglacial crustal movement in the Great Lakes region has consisted of an upwarping to the northeast; therefore when investigators (seeking to measure postglacial uplift by means of uncorrected lake-level gage readings compared with the presumed "level" summer lake surface) plotted gage differences for pairs of gages and found a northeast tilting, they apparently assumed that the change in gage differences was produced by crustal movement. Because investigators thought that the lake surface was level, whereas it was actually tilted upward to the northeast, the northeastern gages of the pairs appeared to be uplifted by the amount of the net set-up.

TABLE 5

A. LAKE ERIE OVER-WATER WINDS (JUNE-SEPTEMBER)
 MEAN VECTOR RESULTANT WIND FOR TOLEDO-BUFFALO

Summer Season Over-Water Vector Resultant Wind					
Year	From	mph	Year	From	mph
1950 ^a	214° (SSW)	265	1955	227° (SW)	304
1951	224° (SW)	518	1956	228° (SW)	582
1952	214° (SW)	576	1957 ^b	238° (WSW)	355
1953	223° (SW)	505	1958	240° (WSW)	735
1954	236° (SW)	592	1959	237° (WSW)	445

^aBased on three months (July, August, September)

^bBased on three months (June, July, August)

B. LAKE ONTARIO OVER-WATER WINDS (JUNE-SEPTEMBER)
 MEAN VECTOR RESULTANT WIND FOR TORONTO-TRENTON

Summer Season Over-Water Vector Resultant Wind					
Year	From	mph	Year	From	mph
1948	280° (W)	464	1952	242° (WSW)	638
1949	253° (WSW)	460	1953 ^a	251° (WSW)	476
1950	260° (W)	598	1954 ^a	270° (W)	410
1951	252° (WSW)	480	1955	246° (WSW)	339

^aObservations from Main Duck Island 1953-1954.

C. LAKE SUPERIOR LAND STATION WINDS (JUNE-SEPTEMBER)
 MEAN VECTOR RESULTANT WIND FOR DULUTH-PORT ARTHUR

Summer Season Land Station Vector Resultant Wind					
Year	From	mph	Year	From	mph
1950	262° (W)	290	1955	266° (W)	109
1951	278° (W)	146	1956	337° (NNW)	86
1952	246° (WSW)	223	1957	278° (W)	115
1953	262° (W)	216	1958	266° (W)	320
1954	22° (NNE)	80	1959	218° (SW)	142

When gage differences were plotted for a number of years and a best-fit curve drawn, the slope of the curve was called the "rate of crustal movement;" in fact, the slope of the curve represented, for the most part, the average net set-up for the time period being considered.

It must be emphasized that the quantities which were determined and used in the following sections, i.e., gage differences, barometric pressures, and effective wind velocities, are net quantities; that is, they are residua of winds, barometric pressures, and wind and barometric pressure effects which occurred over the four month summer period. As quantities which do not represent phenomena that were actually observed, but rather averages of actual conditions, they should represent a quasi-steady state condition, and the relationships deduced from their study may or may not apply in detail to momentary, hourly or daily conditions.

EFFECTIVE WINDS

Summer season over-water mean monthly vector winds (summer mean monthly winds) cannot be used directly in the computation of set-up, or in correlating gage differences with set-up—they must first be converted to effective winds, i.e., winds which represent that portion of the over-water wind which causes the observed setup at the gage sites.

Winds vary from 0% to 100% in effectiveness—100% effective winds are those winds which cause the observed gage differences (corrected for barometric pressure effects). Zero per cent effective winds are winds which blow at right angles to the 100% effective winds. Ideally, effective wind velocities when squared and plotted against corrected gage

differences would yield a + 1.0 correlation coefficient.

Effective winds are usually found by resolving vector resultant winds into their components; in this case, effective winds are functions of the cosines of the angles between the resultant wind directions and the direction of the lake axis (deviation angles). However, effective winds are defined as winds which cause the observed setup, and not as the simple components of resultant winds. Because resultant winds must exert their influence across the air-water interface, and because they blow over a curved surface and not a flat plane, effective winds may not be cosine functions of the resultant winds; instead they may bear some other relationship to resultant winds. With this possibility in mind, effective winds were computed in two ways: (1) one computation was made using the cosines of the deviation angles from 0-90 degrees; and (2) the other computation was made using a linear relationship, i.e., winds were considered to decrease 1.11% in effectiveness for each degree that the resultant wind directions deviated from the direction of a line connecting the two gages under investigation (see pp. 139-140).

The test to determine the correct method is by comparing the degree of correlation (shown by the correlation coefficient r) between the effective wind velocities squared and the observed gage differences corrected for barometric pressure effect. If winds from one particular direction are most effective in creating the set-up, the correlation coefficient for this direction and the set-up should be at a maximum. Thus the values of the correlation coefficients should increase as the wind directions

approach the 100% effective wind direction, be at a maximum at the 100% effective wind direction, and decrease as this direction is exceeded.

If winds blow from a direction opposite to those which cause the quasi-steady state setup, i.e., they blow "down slope," they are called negative effective winds. For example, a wind that blows in a direction 180° from the direction of the 100% effective wind would be a -100% effective wind.

Direction of Effective Wind

Previous investigators (Hellström, 1941, pp. 17-18; Keulegan, 1953, pp. 102-103; Harris, 1954, p. 38; Gillies, 1960, p. 37) have considered the 100% effective wind as blowing parallel to the lake axis, i.e., on Lake Erie the 100% effective wind would be from 248° . The choice of the lake axis direction as the 100% effective wind direction presumably follows the reasoning of V. W. Ekman's theory of currents which postulates that the rotation of the earth does not deflect surface currents in shallow water, and that, consequently, wind-drift currents flow in the direction of the wind. In addition, Ekman's theory proposes that the slope of the water surface will always be in the direction of the wind in water of any depth. Because these conclusions do not agree with the results of this investigation, Ekman's theory will be examined briefly in the light of the observations which prompted its formation.

V. Walfrid Ekman originated his now classic theory of ocean currents in 1902 at the suggestion of Fridtjof Nansen who discovered during the

drifting of the ice pack which held his ship, the "Fram," that the ice drift of a given wind deviated to the right of the wind direction. Following the original Norwegian publication of the theory in 1902, Ekman expanded his theory which was then published in 1905 as "On the Influence of the Earth's Rotation on Ocean Currents."

The theory represents conclusions deduced from a mathematical model of ocean currents incorporating several simplifying assumptions; these assumptions cause the model to differ from conditions as they exist in nature (see pp. 54-56). Ekman (1905) states several conclusions which are pertinent to this discussion as follows:

Equations (5) then show that in the northern hemisphere the drift current at the very surface will be directed 45° to the right of the velocity of the wind (relative to the water).¹ In the southern hemisphere it is directed 45° to the left... (p. 8).

The above-mentioned result, according to which the surface-current's deflection from the wind-direction, is invariably 45° , seems rather strange; one would indeed expect the earth's rotation to have less influence on the currents, the smaller its vertical component $\omega \sin \phi$... (p. 10).

The angle α between the wind and the surface-current, is not exactly 45° , when the depth is finite. ... and the angle of deflection α consequently depends on the ratio between the depth of the sea \underline{d} and the Depth of Wind-Current D . If \underline{d}/D is a small fraction, α is small and the current goes nearly in the direction of the wind. As the depth increases, α is alternately smaller and greater than 45° . Thus for instance $\alpha = 21^\circ,5$ for $\underline{d} = 0,25 D$, $\alpha = 45^\circ$ for $\underline{d} = 0,5 D$, $\alpha = 45^\circ,5$ for $\underline{d} = 0,75 D$, and $\alpha = 45^\circ$ for $\underline{d} = D$. When \underline{d} is greater than D , the deviations from the mean value $\alpha = 45^\circ$ are quite insignificant, and the motion takes place almost exactly as on the deep sea. (p. 13-14).

... The arrows represented without shaft-feathers give the direction of the slope; it is remarkable how nearly this direc-

tion follows the wind's direction (common for the whole plate) whatever be the depth of water. This shows clearly that the earth's rotation has no considerable deflecting influence on the mounting up of water, in a sea impelled over its whole area by the same wind (although the currents themselves may deviate from the wind's direction). Its influence on the absolute magnitude of the mounting up is also found to be rather moderate, its effect being to diminish the inclination of the water-surface in the ratio 0,98 if $\underline{d} = 0,5D$, in the ratio 0,77 if $\underline{d} = 1,25 D$, 0,71 if $\underline{d} = 2,5 D$, and exactly $\frac{2}{3}$ if \underline{d} is infinite (p. 37).

The above quotations represent the chief deductions relating to the angle between the wind direction and the surface wind-drift current, and between the wind direction and direction of water surface slope.

Although Nansen's original observations of the angle of deviation between wind direction and ice-drift are given as 20° - 40° to the right of the wind (e.g., Ekman, 1905, p. 2; Sverdrup, et al., 1942, p. 492), an examination of Nansen's (1902; 1904) summaries of the original data reveals that the range of the deviation angles was not that uniform. Nansen's observations taken aboard the "Fram" from 1893-1896 are summarized in the histograms of Figs. 6 and 7 (the angles of deviation were compiled from Nansen, 1902, pp. 366-67, Table 9, Column 13).

The histogram of Fig. 6 shows the distribution of the frequencies of occurrence of the angles between the wind resultant and the direction of ice-drift (after correction for the permanent current). The majority of the angles are in the 20° - 40° range, but wide variances exist, e.g., the maximum angle was 80° to the right of the wind, the minimum angle was 63° to the left of the wind, and mean angle was 28° (only 62% of Ekman's theoretical value).

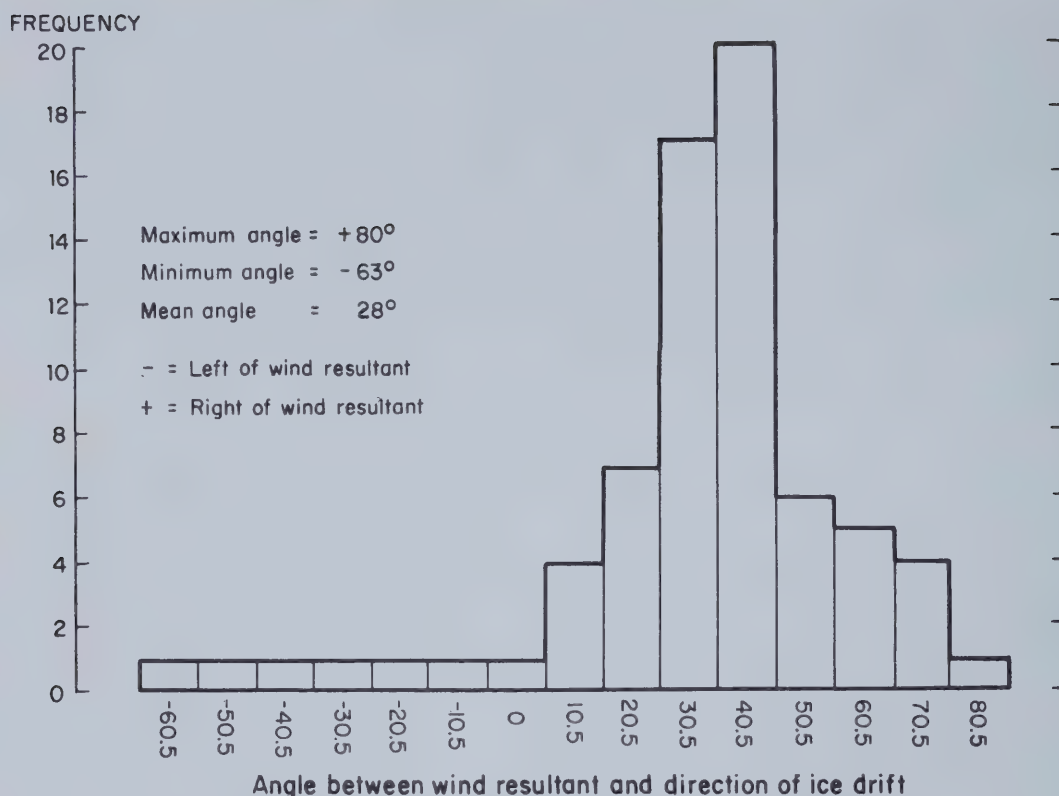


Fig. 6. Frequency of wind drift—wind resultant angles measured during drift of the "Fram," 1893-1896.

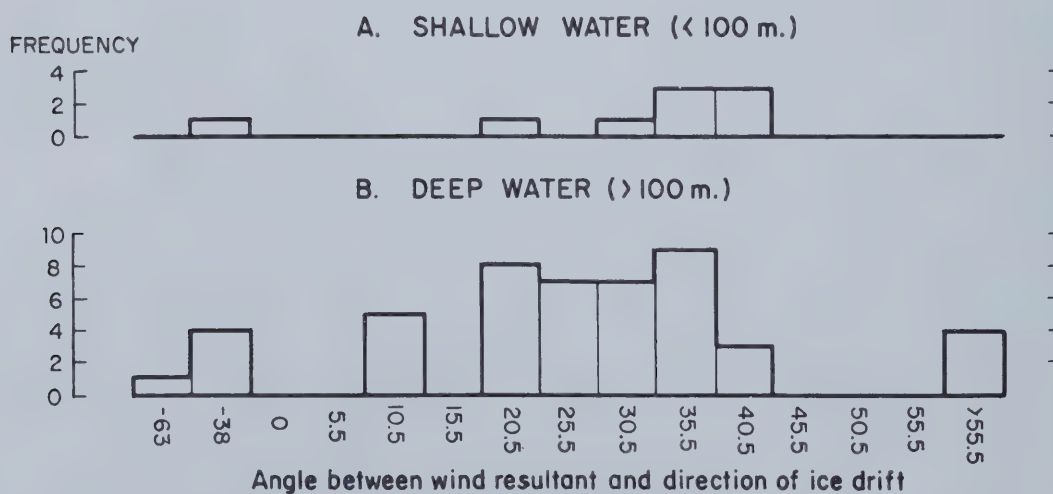


Fig. 7. Comparison of frequencies of drift deviation angles for soundings in: A. shallow (<100 m) and B. deep (>100 m) water.

Sounding information from Nansen's (1904, pp. 9-11) paper "The Bathymetrical Features of the North Polar Seas" was combined with wind-drift information from the 1902 paper to produce the histogram of Fig. 7—which represents the distribution of the angles of deviation of the ice-drift from the wind direction on the days when soundings were taken (56 soundings and deviation angles can be compared). The deep water histogram is the more interesting of the two histograms in that it shows that 40 of the 47 angles were less than 35° to the right, four angles were 59° to the right, and none of the angles fell in the 40.5° - 55.5° range, whereas according to Ekman (1905, p. 10) the angle "is invariably 45° ." The compilation also includes instances of deviation angles bearing to the left of the wind direction instead of to the right as required by the theory.

Nansen (1902, p. 378) gave the angle between wind drift and wind resultant as: (a) 26° from November 23, 1893, to November 23, 1894, (b) 34° from November 24, 1894, to November 28, 1895, and (c) 23° from November 28, 1895, to November 27, 1896. Other observations of the wind-drift direction angles confirm this lower range of values. For example, according to Sverdrup, et al. (1942, pp. 623, 666), Brennecke found the drift of the "Deutschland" in the Antarctic Weddell Sea to be 34° on the average, and Sverdrup reported the ice-drift over the North Siberian Shelf to average 33° to the right of the wind. In addition, G. E. Hutchinson (1957, p. 268) stated that R. Witting in 1909 measured

(109 observations) the angle of current deviation from the wind direction in water only 9 meters deep and found the deviation to be 33° to the right.

In each of these cases an explanation was advanced as to why the observed angles differed from the theoretical angle rather than why the theoretical value failed to conform to conditions as they were measured in nature. When empirical observations reveal a consistent difference between their values and the values obtained from a mathematical model of the phenomenon, it would appear that the model fails to account for some relationship which exists in nature, and for that reason it should be re-evaluated and adjusted so as to conform to natural conditions.

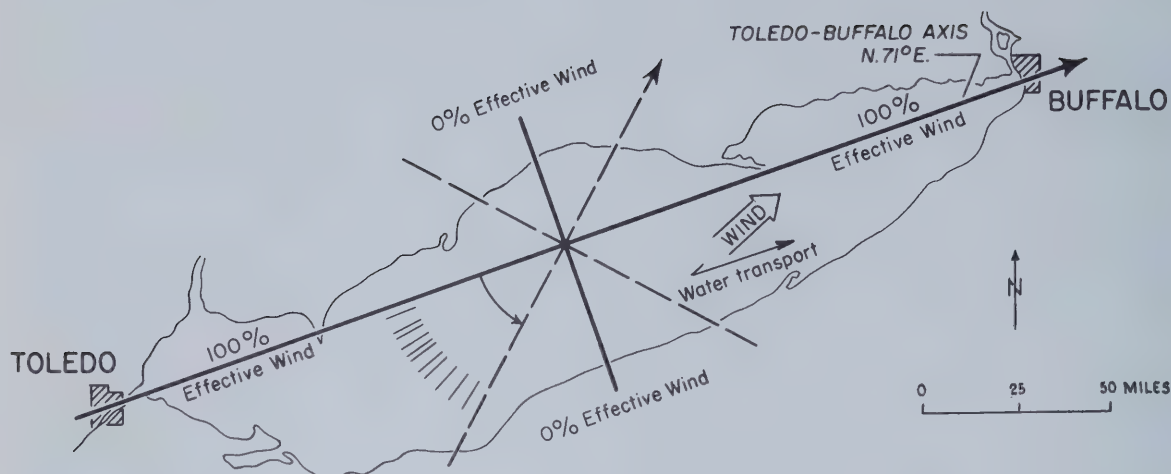
Ekman's statement that the slope of the water surface is always in the direction of the wind, rather than at some angle to the right of the wind, runs counter to intuitive reasoning of the subject. Because the surface slope is caused by the wind-drift current which flows at some angle to the right of the wind (in the northern hemisphere), it would seem that the surface slope should also be at a maximum in a direction at some angle to the right of the wind. In a study "The Effect of Steady Winds on Sea Level at Atlantic City," A. R. Miller (1957, p. 30) found that a nomogram relating the factors which cause departures from mean sea level indicated that a deviation angle of 20° gave the greatest slope if the assumption were made that the greatest departure takes place when net transport is normal to the coast-line. Miller (p. 30) stated that:

If the net transport represents surface drift and the gradient wind is replaced by geostrophic wind, the empirical angle of 20° is comparable to the computed angles ($\phi_O - \phi_S = 19^\circ$ to 28°) between surface drift and gradient wind.

If Ekman's theory is followed, the direction of the effective wind would parallel the direction of a line connecting the two gages which record the water-surface levels; however, if, as suggested by Miller's nomogram, the slope occurs to the right of the wind, the effective wind would be from some direction to the right of a line connecting the gage sites.

Lake Erie, for reasons of geographical location, relatively uniform shallowness, wind measurements (first order weather stations around the lake) and water-surface measurements (levels taken by modern instruments and procedures), presents an excellent situation for testing Ekman's hypothesis of water-surface slope direction in shallow water.

As shown in Fig. 8, the direction of a line between the gage sites at Toledo and Buffalo is $N\ 71^\circ\ E$. If Ekman were correct with regard to slope direction, an effective wind blowing from $S\ 71^\circ\ W$ (251°) would give the best correlation with the observed gage differences corrected for barometric pressure effect. On the other hand, if the greatest slope occurs to the right of the wind direction, the wind showing the best correlation with the set-up (in this situation where the slope direction is fixed) should come from some direction to the right of the Toledo-Buffalo axis.



100% Effective wind considered as coming from:

251° (On axis)	235° (16° Right)	218° (33° Right)
248° (3° Right)	233° (18° Right)	213° (38° Right)
243° (8° Right)	230° (21° Right)	208° (43° Right)
240° (11° Right)	228° (23° Right)	
238° (13° Right)	223° (28° Right)	

Fig. 8. Lake Erie effective wind directions. Relationship of wind directions to 100% effectiveness in creating observed setup at Toledo and Buffalo.

VECTOR WIND AND EFFECTIVE WIND PLOTTING PROCEDURE

The procedure outlined below was used to convert land station wind directions (prevailing) and speeds (average) to vector quantities. Wind directions and speeds for American stations were taken from the U. S. Weather Bureau's Local Climatological Data Supplements and those for Canadian stations were obtained from Meteorological Division's Monthly Meteorological Summary.

The plotting procedure for vector winds is as follows:

(a) The four synoptic hour observed winds (or winds recorded closest to the hours of 0100; 0700; 1300; 1900) were plotted as vectors (scale of 1 in. = 5 mph); their resultant, when divided by four, gave the daily mean vector wind at the land station concerned.

(b) In order to obtain over-water vector winds for the lakes under investigation, the daily land station mean vector winds were converted to over-water vector winds by applying empirically derived over-water: land ratios. These ratios which have been determined only for Lake Erie (Hunt, 1958, pp. 28, 30) and Lake Ontario (Bruce and Rodgers, 1959, pp. 10-11) are as follows:

(i) Toledo: $-V_{\text{water}}/V_{\text{land}} = 1.59$ for June-September, 1950-59, with the exception of June, 1950, 1952-54, and July, 1955, when $V_{\text{W}}/V_{\text{L}} = 1.13$;

(ii) Buffalo: $-V_{\text{W}}/V_{\text{L}} = 1.13$ for June-September, 1950-59, with the exception of June, 1950, when $V_{\text{W}}/V_{\text{L}} = 0.90$, and September, 1956, when $V_{\text{W}}/V_{\text{L}} = 1.59$:

(iii) Lake Ontario: $-(\text{Bruce and Rodgers "spring"}) V_{\text{W}}/V_{\text{L}} = 1.60$ for June and July.

(iv) Lake Ontario: $-(\text{Bruce and Rodgers "fall"}) V_{\text{W}}/V_{\text{L}} = 1.90$ for August and September.

(c) The 30 (or 31) daily over-water mean vector winds were plotted on a scale of 1 in. = 10 mph to secure the monthly over-water vector resultant winds. Monthly mean daily vector winds were found by dividing the value of the monthly over-water vector resultant winds by the number of days in the month.

(d) The number of monthly over-water resultant winds corresponding to the number of stations used were plotted (scale 1 in.=50 mph) as a progressive vector plot in which the June wind velocity of one station was drawn to scale, being followed by the June wind velocity at the other station; the wind velocities for July, August, and September were plotted similarly. The vector sum was divided by the number of stations (two) to get the summer season over-water vector resultant wind [to be called the summer resultant wind] for the lake under discussion.

(e) The summer resultant wind divided by four gave the summer season over-water mean monthly vector wind [hereafter called the summer mean monthly wind].

(f) Summer mean monthly winds were converted to effective winds before the relationships with set-up were determined.

Effective winds on Lake Erie were determined by two methods:

(a) the first method is based on the assumption that the effective wind is a linear function of the vector wind; (b) the second method considers the effective wind to be a cosine function of the vector wind. Using the first method, the effectiveness of a given wind was found by: (a) subtracting the wind direction from the 100% effective wind direction to get the deviation angle, (b) multiplying the deviation angle by 1.11% ($90^\circ = 100\%$) to obtain the percentage of ineffectiveness, (c) subtracting the percentage of ineffectiveness from 100% to get the effectiveness percentage, and (d) multiplying the resultant wind speed by the effectiveness percentage to get the effective wind speed. For example, if the

direction of the 100% effective wind were 250° , winds from 160° and 340° would have zero effectiveness; winds from 70° would be -100% effective; and winds from, say, 220° and 280° would be 66.7% effective. Following the second method, the effectiveness of a wind was computed by: (a) determining the cosine of the deviation angle (equal to 100% effective wind direction minus the given wind direction), (b) multiplying the cosine by 100 to get the percentage of effectiveness, and (c) multiplying the vector wind speed by the effectiveness percentage to get the effective wind speed.

The resulting summer season over-water mean monthly effective vector winds [called effective wind or "V"] were then squared because wind stress, and thus setup, is a function of the wind velocity squared (see pp. 51-53). The quantity V^2 was used in wind-slope calculations, correlations, etc.

The effective wind velocities for Lake Erie which were computed from the summer mean monthly winds (1950-59) for 13 directions from 251° (on axis) to 208° (43° to the right of axis) are given in Table 67 (Appendix II, p. 228). These effective wind velocities were squared and correlated with summer season mean corrected gage differences for the same years.

Correlation of Effective Winds and Wind Slopes

Observed gage differences are composed of wind slopes and barometric pressure effects; therefore, the effect of barometric pressure differences

must be computed and subtracted from the gage differences before the gage differences can be correlated with the effective winds. Barometric pressure effects were computed following the method on p. 229 (Appendix II) for Lake Erie (1950-59) and Lake Ontario (1948-55); the results of which are given in Tables 68 and 69 (Appendix II, pp. 231-232).

The wind slopes (set-up) which remained after the barometric pressure effects were removed from the gage differences were then correlated and regression lines determined for each of the 13 directions listed in Fig. 8. The regression lines and correlation coefficients were calculated by standard formulas (Wallis and Roberts, 1956, pp. 534-535; Goedicke, 1953, p. 163). The regression line formula

$$\bar{y} = a + bx \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{y} = bx + a \quad (10)$$

was used,

where:

a = intercept

b = slope

$x = V^2$ = effective velocity squared

y = gage difference

and where

$$b = \frac{\epsilon xy - \frac{(\epsilon x)(\epsilon y)}{n}}{\epsilon x^2 - \frac{(\epsilon x)^2}{n}} \quad (11)$$

$$a = \frac{\epsilon y}{n} - b \frac{\epsilon x}{n} \quad (12)$$

Correlation coefficients were computed by means of the formula

$$r = m \frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_y} = \frac{\overline{xy} - \bar{x} \bar{y}}{(\sqrt{\overline{x^2} - \bar{x}^2})(\sqrt{\overline{y^2} - \bar{y}^2})}$$

where:

$$m = \text{slope} \left[m = \frac{\overline{xy} - \bar{x} \bar{y}}{\sigma_x^2} \right]$$

The results of the computation of correlation coefficients and regression lines using a linear relationship for effective winds and vector winds (13 directions) are given in Table 70 (Appendix II, p. 233). Six selected correlation coefficients and their effective wind speeds computed by the cosine method are given in Table 71 (Appendix II, p. 234). A summary of the effective wind directions considered as the 100 per cent effective wind, together with their correlation coefficients, is given below. After a direction was selected as the 100 per cent effective direction, summer mean monthly vector winds for 1950-1959 were converted to effective winds using the selected direction as the direction of the 100 per cent effective wind; these effective wind velocities were squared and correlated with observed set-up. This procedure was followed for 13 directions (from a direction parallel to the Toledo-Buffalo axis to a direction 43° to the right of the Toledo-Buffalo axis); the purpose was to determine the 100 per cent effective wind direction which would correlate most closely with the observed set-ups (corrected for barometric pressure effect).

The fact that a correlation coefficient of 0.76 for ten pairs of observations has less than a 1 per cent chance of arising accidentally (Herdan, 1960, p. 166) points out the significance of the following correlation figures where 11 of the 13 coefficients were considerably greater than 0.76.

<u>100% eff. wind from</u>	<u>wind from degrees to rt. of axis</u>	<u>correl. coeff. (cos.)</u>	<u>correl. coeff. (linear)</u>
251°	0°	0.90	0.84
248°	3°	0.91	0.84
243°	8°		0.85
240°	11°		0.85
238°	13°		0.87
235°	16°		0.90
233°	18°		0.92
230°	21°	0.94	0.95
228°	23°	0.93	0.98
223°	28°	0.93	0.94
218°	33°		0.84
213°	38°		0.72
208°	43°	0.89	0.68

The correlation coefficients computed from plots of effective winds considered as cosine functions of the vector winds and gage differences ranges from 0.89 to 0.94; there is little change in the value of the coefficients whether the wind is blowing along the direction of the Toledo-Buffalo axis or from a direction 43° to the right of the axis. In this case, it would appear that there is no definite 100 per cent effectiveness direction within at least 43° of the Toledo-Buffalo axis. On the other hand, the correlation coefficients resulting from effective winds assumed to have a linear relationship with vector winds shows the corre-

lation coefficients increasing to a maximum (the 100 per cent effective direction), then decreasing in value as the 100 per cent effective direction is passed.

The progressive increase in the correlation coefficient (r) from 0.84 when the wind is blowing along the Toledo-Buffalo axis direction to 0.98 when the wind is from 23° to the right of the axis, followed by a decrease in the value of r as the deviation angle exceeds 23° , suggests very strongly that the wind slope in Lake Erie occurs about 23° to the right of the wind, and, therefore, that the wind-drift surface current also flows about 23° to the right of the wind.

The very high correlation coefficients (up to 0.98) were unexpected in light of the errors discussed in pp. 68-76, as well as to the fact that wind velocities were determined at only two weather stations (Toledo and Buffalo). The only obvious solution seems to be that compensating errors have occurred and that vector wind velocities at Toledo and Buffalo (when converted with Hunt's ratios) are representative samples of the winds which blow over Lake Erie.

The very close correlation between effective wind velocities and corrected gage differences leaves little doubt that the observed gage differences are actually wind slopes (net set-up), and consequently are not measures of crustal movement. The correlation also brings out the fact that the greater part of the error in modern lake-level records for Lake Erie, and probably for the other Great Lakes as well, is due to meteorological effects.

Lake Erie "Hindcast"

A "hindcast" of calculated gage differences for 1950-59 was prepared in an effort to test the validity of the assumption that the observed gage differences are due to wind slope and barometric pressure effect. The wind slope was calculated from the regression line for winds from 23° to the right of the Toledo-Buffalo axis (wind slope = $1.250 \times 10^{-5} V^2 - 0.2543$) and barometric pressure effects were taken from Table 68 (Appendix II, p. 231). The results of these calculations are given in Table 6 (Appendix II, p. 179) and are compared graphically with observed gage differences in Fig. 9. [Note: The calculations were carried to three or four decimal places before the final rounding-off to two places in order to reduce the rounding-off error.]

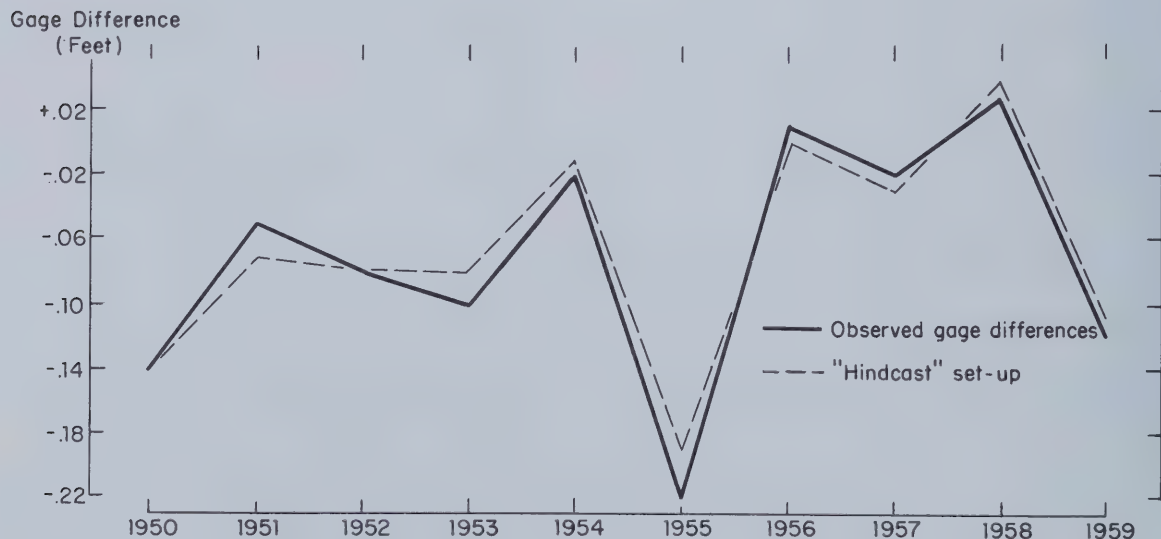


Fig. 9. Lake Erie "hindcast" set-up compared with observed gage differences for the summer seasons of 1950-59. Hindcast set-up = calculated wind slope + barometric pressure effect.

The comparison of observed gage differences and predicted set-up in Fig. 9 aids in emphasizing the fact that the observed gage differences are due almost wholly to meteorological effects, that the summer season mean lake surface is not level, and that uncorrected gage differences cannot be used in the calculation of rates of crustal movement.

Present Status of Great Lakes Rates of Uplift

The correlation studies of wind velocities and gage differences together with information derived from the isobases of former shoreline features permits a résumé to be made of the validity of rates of crustal movement in the Great Lakes region which have been calculated up to the present time.

Postglacial uplift around Lake Erie ceased several thousands of years ago, and the quantities called "rates of crustal movement" are chiefly meteorological effects. Therefore all post-Nipissing rates of uplift for this lake are erroneous.

All of the gage pairs on Lakes Michigan and Huron are either in the area of horizontality, or have one gage of the pair in the area of horizontality. For this reason all previously determined rates of uplift for these lakes are not valid. Future determinations of possible uplift on Lake Michigan and Lake Huron must be determined from gage pairs which meet the requirements listed on page 122, and corrected gage records must be used for the determinations of uplift.

Gage differences, therefore calculated rates of uplift, from gage pairs north of the area of horizontality on Lake Ontario are probably, for the most part, the result of meteorological effects; however, lack of data prevents a proper correlation study of wind velocity and gage differences from being made. When the necessary wind information and lake-level information becomes available, it will be possible to determine whether gage differences represent net set-up, uplift, or a combination of the two factors.

Most of Lake Superior lies to the north of the Nipissing zero isobase; therefore it is possible that postglacial uplift is occurring around Lake Superior. Although uplift may be taking place around Lake Superior, the present gage sites are so located that it is impossible to determine whether gage differences are caused by uplift, wind slope, or some other factor. In the future, if the necessary meteorological stations and lake-level gages are established, it should be possible to separate gage differences into their component parts and to determine if one component represents postglacial crustal movement.

Before accurate rates of postglacial uplift can be measured in those areas where it may exist, it will be necessary to revise present procedures for obtaining lake-level gage differences so as to eliminate, or compensate for, the influences and errors which have been discussed in the preceding pages. If the essential meteorological and lake-level data become available, and if the necessary precautions are taken and

corrections made, then it will be possible to determine whether or not postglacial crustal movement exists in the Great Lakes region. In addition, if uplift is now taking place in this region, accurate measurements of its rate may be made.)

VI. CONCLUSIONS

1. Up to the present the only accurate rates of postglacial crustal movement in the Great Lakes region are those based on the elevations of former shoreline features of late glacial and postglacial lakes. Such rates are derived from the differences in elevation between the zero isobases and the isobases of maximum deformation—differences which are measured in tens or hundreds of feet and which result from thousands of years of differential warping.

The magnitude of these quantities is great enough for elevations determined by ordinary methods of spirit leveling to give accurate rates of crustal movement.

Rates of uplift calculated from isobases of former shorelines are to be contrasted with modern rates of uplift for the Great Lakes region determined from water-level gage records taken over periods of tens of years. In addition, the differences in elevation of the gages are measured in hundredths of a foot, tenths of a foot and, in some cases, in feet.

2. Modern land uplift due to postglacial isostatic rebound can occur only to the northeast of the Nipissing zero isobase, i.e., northeast of the Nipissing area of horizontality. Because postglacial crustal movement cannot occur in the Nipissing area of horizontality all rates of uplift on Lake Erie are invalid; furthermore, in the other Great Lakes all rates of uplift which are based on pairs of gages in which one gage

of the pair is south of the Nipissing zero isobase are also invalid.

3. Owing to a number of reasons (including the failure to consider the rise of mean sea level at the tide gage in New York City; mistaking the changes of elevation of bench mark Gristmill at Rensselaer, New York, which were caused by better determinations of sea level and adjustments of the precise leveling net for actual uplift; the inclusion of errors which have been discussed in this paper, etc.) the only determination of absolute rates of uplift by precise leveling in the Great Lakes region is valueless.

4. The choice of the tide gage at Father Point, Quebec, as the initial point for the precise leveling establishing the new International Great Lakes Datum was a dubious one. The Father Point tide gage is only about 400 miles from the former Laurentide ice divide; thus it is within the area of uplift. The gage is at the narrow end of the converging shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the estuary of the St. Lawrence River. This situation increases the influence of meteorological effects. These factors (if corrections are not made) would prevent precise levelings made a number of years apart from being compared to the same datum.

5. Water-level gage records furnishing the basic data for water-leveling and modern rates of crustal movement contain errors which reduce the accuracy of elevations in the Great Lakes region, and which render valueless previously determined rates of crustal movement. The errors include those caused by meteorological effects, gage location effects, instrument error, and operator error. Early gage records of the Great

Lakes (up to about 1920) contained a greater proportion of instrument and operator error than error due to meteorological effects; gage records since that time, however, have an increased proportion of error due to meteorological effect owing to the reduction of operator and instrument error.

6. The influence of the disturbing factors must be removed or rendered insignificant if gage readings are to be an accurate representation of the actual elevation of the lake surface, or if the records are to be used in the determination of uplift.

Reduction in the size of errors due to meteorological effects, as well as to the effects of gage location, can be brought about by removing the water-level gages from their present locations near population centers and shallow water, and relocating them at sites in deep water away from harbors, bays, rivers, inlets, and areas of man-made changes in the configuration of the shoreline and underwater topography.

7. The assumption that the summer mean lake surface is level (the assumption which underlies the practice of water-leveling and the calculation of modern rates of postglacial crustal movement) is shown to be incorrect by the calculation of vector winds from Lake Erie and Lake Ontario for the summer months (June, July, August and September) of the years 1950-59 (Lake Erie) and 1948-55 (Lake Ontario). These determinations reveal a net vector wind from the southwest quadrant—a net vector wind which causes a net set-up between water level gages located at opposite ends of the lakes. The set-up is expressed as a tilt in the lake surface

upward to the northeast.

8. Rates of crustal movement calculated from best-fit curves of gage differences versus time represent, in the large part, the average net set-up between the gages of each pair for the time period plotted. This is demonstrated by the correlation of effective wind velocities on Lake Erie for the summer months of 1950-59 with gage differences of water-level gages at Toledo, Ohio, and Buffalo, New York. The correlation coefficient, r , was 0.98 with a 100 per cent effective wind direction from 23° to the right of the Toledo-Buffalo axis.

9. Definitive correlation studies of wind velocities and gage differences necessary for the determination of the existence, or of the rates, of uplift cannot be made for Lakes Ontario, Huron, and Superior until extensive wind, barometric pressure, and lake-level data become available for the eastern end of Lake Ontario and the northern and northeastern shores of Lake Huron and Lake Superior. When the necessary data are available, it will be possible to determine whether gage differences represent net setup, uplift, or a combination of these factors.

10. Ekman's classic theory of ocean currents, which represents conclusions deduced from a mathematical model of ocean currents incorporating many simplifying assumptions, should be re-examined and modified on the basis of empirical observations. This recommendation is supported by an analysis of Nansen's original observations (the basis for Ekman's theory) which revealed wide discrepancies between the observations and the results of Ekman's theory.

11. The correlation study of water-level gage differences and effective winds on Lake Erie presents an excellent opportunity to test Ekman's assumption that the direction of the water-surface slope is always in the direction of the wind, and provides a new technique for determining the angle between the direction of water-surface slope and wind direction.

12. The Lake Erie correlation study (effective winds [computed as linear functions of vector winds] vs. gage differences corrected for barometric pressure effect) indicated that the observed water-surface slope was caused by effective winds whose 100 per cent effective wind was from 23° to the right of the Toledo-Buffalo axis.

13. As the wind slope is caused by the wind-drift current, and as the wind slope is caused by wind blowing from about 23° to the right of the slope direction; then the wind-drift current is also caused by a wind blowing from about 23° to the right; or, expressed another way, the surface wind-drift current on Lake Erie will be directed about 23° to the right of the wind.

14. The thermocline established during the summer months probably acts as a temporary bottom. Therefore, if the thermocline acts as a quasi-bottom, and since the depth to the thermocline is approximately the same in all of the Great Lakes; then the angle of deviation of surface currents from wind direction for Lake Erie (23° to the right of the wind), should also be representative of the angle of deviation for the other Great Lakes.

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APPENDIX I

Photostat of

Report upon

The Primary Triangulation

of the

United States Lake Survey

(Comstock, C. B., 1882, p. 595)

showing fundamental assumption underlying water-leveling and the determination of rates of uplift on the Great Lakes.

CHAPTER XXII.

ELEVATIONS OF THE GREAT LAKES.

§ 1. The elevations of the Great Lakes above mean tide sea-level, as determined by the Lake Survey, depend upon two distinct processes, viz., that of spirit-level measurements and that of water-level measurements.

By the first process, starting from a bench-mark of known height above sea-level at Greenbush, New York, the elevation of a bench-mark at Oswego, New York, near the east end of Lake Ontario, was found. In like manner the differences in elevation of bench-marks at the following pairs of points were determined: Port Dalhousie, Ontario, near the west end of Lake Ontario, and Port Colborne, Ontario, near the east end of Lake Erie; Rockwood, Michigan, near the west end of Lake Erie, and Lakeport, Michigan, near the south end of Lake Huron; Escanaba, Michigan, near the north end of Green Bay,* and Marquette, Michigan, on the south shore of Lake Superior.

By the second process, depending on the assumption that the mean surface of each lake is level, the relative heights of the pairs of bench-marks for the respective lakes were determined. For this purpose water-gauges were fixed near these bench-marks, and tri-daily observations of the height of the water-surface at each gauge were made during the months of May, June, July, and August, 1875, this series of observations being taken as of sufficient extent to give a reliable mean. Assuming, then, that the mean surface of each lake for this period of about four months was level, the differences of the gauge-readings gave the relative heights of the zero-points of the two gauges on each lake, and as these zero-points were carefully referred to the corresponding bench-marks, the relative heights of these bench-marks were also known.

As the surfaces of the lakes vary considerably in elevation from year to year, their mean elevations can only be found by observations extending over a series of years. Such observations, consisting of tri-daily gauge-readings, have been made on Lake Ontario at Charlotte and Sacket's Harbor, N. Y.; on Lake Erie at Cleveland, Ohio, and Erie, Pa.; on Lake Huron at Port Austin, Mich.; on Lake Michigan at Milwaukee, Wis.; and on Lake Superior at Marquette, Mich. By comparing the observations made at Oswego in 1875 with those made during the same time at Charlotte, the elevation of the bench-mark at the latter place, to which the surface of Lake Ontario has been referred, becomes known, and thus also the mean elevation of Lake Ontario for the period covered by the observations at Charlotte. Similarly the mean elevation of Lake Erie has been derived from the observations made at Cleveland, the mean elevation of Lakes Huron and Michigan from the observations made at Milwaukee, and the mean elevation of Lake Superior from the observations made at Marquette.

The methods used and the results derived thereby, of which the foregoing is a brief outline, will now be given somewhat in detail.

LEVELING BY MEANS OF THE SPIRIT-LEVEL.

§ 2. For this work two parties were detailed, Assistant F. W. Lehmartz having charge of the first, and Assistant L. L. Wheeler of the second. During the year 1875 the lines from Greenbush to Oswego, and from Port Dalhousie to Port Colborne were leveled in duplicate, and a single line of levels was run from Gibraltar, near Rockwood, Mich., to Lakeport. The instruments used during this year were Stackpole level No. 1496, 11 inches focal length, object-glass 1½ inches in

* For reasons given in the sequel it is assumed that Lakes Huron and Michigan and Green Bay have the same altitude.

APPENDIX II

Table of "hindcast" for Lake Erie.

Tables of Lake Erie vector wind velocities - 1950-59.

Tables of Lake Ontario vector wind velocities - 1948-55.

Tables of Lake Superior vector wind velocities - 1950-59.

Table of Lake Erie over-water effective wind velocities (linear).

Procedure for computing barometric pressure effect.

Table of Lake Erie barometric pressure effects - 1950-59.

Table of Lake Ontario barometric pressure effects - 1948-55.

Table of Lake Erie gage differences vs. effective wind velocity squared
(linear function).

Table of Lake Erie gage differences vs. effective wind velocity squared
(cosine function).

TABLE 6

LAKE ERIE GAGE DIFFERENCE "HINDCAST"—WINDS FROM 23° RIGHT OF TOLEDO-BUFFALO AXIS

Year	Wind Velocity		Effective Velocity Squared (V^2)	Calculated Wind Slope	Barometric Pressure Effect	Gage Differences	
	From	mph				Calculated	Observed
1950	223°	(SSW)	387	-0.1505	+0.015	-0.1355 = -0.14	-0.14
1951	224°	(SW)	518	-0.0617	-0.007	-0.0687 = -0.07	-0.05
1952	214.5°	(SW)	576	-0.0690	-0.009	-0.0770 = -0.08	-0.08
1953	223°	(SW)	505	-0.0766	+0.002	-0.0746 = -0.08	-0.10
1954	235.5°	(SW)	592	-0.0230	+0.010	-0.0130 = -0.01	-0.02
1955	227°	(SW)	304	-0.1843	-0.010	-0.1943 = -0.19	-0.22
1956	227.5°	(SW)	582	-0.0045	-0.001	+0.0035 = 0.00	+0.01
1957	233°	(SW)	559	-0.0367	+0.003	-0.0337 = -0.03	-0.02
1958	240°	(WSW)	735	+0.0620	-0.019	+0.0430 = +0.04	+0.03
1959	237°	(SW)	559	-0.1293	+0.015	-0.1143 = -0.11	-0.12

Notes:

- (1) Gage difference = wind slope + barometric pressure effect.
- (2) Wind slope computed from 23° regression line (wind slope = $1.250 \times 10^{-5} V^2 - 0.2543$).
- (3) June 1950 wind estimated from an average of Toledo and Buffalo June winds from 1951-59 (winds from years with low observed gage differences weighted double).
- (4) September 1957 wind for Toledo estimated by averaging the September Toledo winds for 1951-54, 56, and 58 (the years with low observed gage differences were not included in the average).

TABLE 7

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TOLEDO, OHIO - 1950

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds		
	July		August	June		July
	June	July	August	September	June	July
1	WSW 10	ENE 2	WSW 10	ENE 11	WSW 12	ENE 4
2	SSW 15	SW 14	WSW 10	NE 9	SSW 17	SW 22
3	SW 7	WSW 4	W 11	WNW 1	SW 8	WSW 6
4	W 11	SW 6	WNW 3	N 10	W 11	SW 9
5	WSW 13	NNW 4	N 6	NE 7	WSW 5	NNW 7
6	SW 15	NW 6	N 5	ENE 6	SW 17	NW 10
7	SSW 8	E 2	ESE 2	ENE 7	SSW 9	E 3
8	SSE 7	ESE 4	SE 2	NE 8	SSE 8	ESE 5
9	S 9	ENE 6	SW 6	ENE 6	S 10	ENE 10
10	WSW 13	ENE 7	WSW 4	N 3	WSW 15	ENE 12
11	WNW 4	WSW 2	S 5	ESE 2	WNW 5	WSW 2
12	SSW 11	SSW 8	NE 4	E 6	SSW 12	SSW 14
13	S 10	W 12	NE 6	WSW 8	S 11	W 18
14	N 4	NE 4	ESE 5	W 11	N 5	NE 7
15	SSE 5	SSE 7	S 4	W 8	SSE 6	SSE 11
16	WSW 9	SSW 15	SSW 5	NNW 4	WSW 10	SSW 24
17	N 10	SW 15	WSW 7	NE 4	N 11	SW 24
18	E 6	WNW 6	NE 10	SW 7	E 7	WNW 10
19	NE 1	E 14	WNW 6	NE 4	NE 1	E 22
20	WSW 10	NE 12	NW 4	ENE 8	WSW 11	NE 16
21	NW 1	NE 10	WSW 5	E 12	NW 1	NE 20
22	S 10	E 3	SSW 10	NNW 5	S 11	E 6
23	SSW 14	NW 8	SSW 10	NNW 7	SSW 16	NW 12
24	WSW 8	WSW 7	SSW 8	NW 13	WSW 9	WSW 12
25	NE 2	W 7	WSW 2	SW 13	NE 2	W 11
26	WSW 8	NW 3	NE 4	SW 8	WSW 9	NW 5
27	WNW 12	WSW 5	SSW 8	SSE 4	WNW 14	WSW 8
28	SW 8	W 4	SSW 8	S 5	SW 9	W 6
29	WNW 10	SW 7	SW 5	SSE 6	WNW 11	SW 11
30	SW 8	SW 8	ENE 7	SSW 4	SW 9	SW 14
31	SSW 6	SSW 6	E 1	SSW 1	SSW 10	E 2
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 163	SW 58	SW 66	NE 36	SW (231°) 198	SW (234°) 92
Daily Vector Mean	SW 5.4	SW 2	SW 2	NE 1	SW 6.6	SW 2.8
						SW 3.4
						NE 1.8
						NE (34°) 55
						SW 106

TABLE 8

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TOLEDO, OHIO - 1951

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	SSW	9	N	NNE	SSW	14	N	NNE
2	ENE	4	SSW	NNE	ENE	6	SSW	NNE
3	WSW	6	7	NNE	WSW	10	NNW	NNE
4	NW	6	SSW	NNE	NW	10	NNE	NNE
5	NNE	5	NE	E	NNE	8	NE	E
6	ENE	2	NW	WSW	ENE	4	SSE	WSW
7	E	12	SSW	NNW	E	18	W	NNW
8	ENE	10	SSW	WSW	ENE	17	SSW	WSW
9	WSW	6	7	ESE	WSW	9	NW	ESE
10	NW	9	SSW	S	NW	15	NNE	S
11	NNW	5	NE	SSW	NNW	8	NE	SSW
12	E	7	N	S	E	12	N	S
13	N	6	NNW	SSW	N	9	NNW	SSW
14	NNW	3	ENE	SSW	NNW	5	NNW	SSW
15	SE	1	W	WSW	SE	2	W	WSW
16	SSE	4	WSW	WSW	SSE	7	WSW	WSW
17	ENE	6	NE	SSW	ENE	9	NE	SSW
18	SSW	6	WSW	WSW	SSW	10	WSW	WSW
19	SW	8	NNW	S	SW	14	WSW	SW
20	SW	12	NNW	S	SW	20	SSW	S
21	NE	6	NNW	SSW	NE	9	NNW	SSW
22	SSE	4	SSW	WSW	SSE	6	NW	WSW
23	W	5	N	SSW	W	8	N	SSW
24	SW	12	NNE	SSW	SW	19	NNE	SSW
25	NE	7	E	NNW	NE	11	E	NNW
26	SSW	8	SSW	SE	SSW	13	SSE	SE
27	WSW	5	SSW	WSW	WSW	8	S	WSW
28	SW	5	ESE	W	SW	8	ESE	W
29	W	5	ESE	NE	W	8	ESE	NE
30	WSW	6	S	SSE	WSW	10	SE	SSE
31	SW	7	SSW	SSW	SW	11	SSW	SSW
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW	WSW	W	SW	SW (235°)	WSW (252°)	W (281°)	SW (220°)
Daily Vector Mean	32	74	31	134	54	124	54	214
	SW	WSW	W	SW	SW	WSW	W	SW
	1.1	2.4	1	4.5	1.8	4	1.7	7.1

TABLE 9

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TOLEDO, OHIO - 1952

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds				
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	NNE	E	ESE	SSW	NNE	E	ESE	SSW
2	SW	S	W	W	SW	S	W	W
3	WSW	SW	ENE	W	WSW	SW	ENE	W
4	NE	WNW	SW	SW	NE	WNW	SW	SW
5	S	ENE	NW	S	S	ENE	NW	S
6	W	E	ENE	WSW	W	E	ENE	WSW
7	NW	S	NE	NE	NW	S	NE	NE
8	SW	SW	ENE	ENE	SW	SW	ENE	ENE
9	W	NNW	S	SSW	W	NNW	S	SSW
10	W	SSE	WNW	SSW	W	SSE	WNW	SSW
11	NNW	SW	NNE	SE	NNW	SW	NNE	SE
12	ENE	SW	SW	ESE	ENE	S	NNW	ESE
13	E	S	NNW	SE	E	S	NNW	SE
14	SSW	SW	S	SSW	SSW	SW	S	SSW
15	ENE	W	SSW	W	ENE	W	SSW	W
16	SSW	SSE	WSW	WSW	SSW	SSE	WSW	WSW
17	W	SW	WNW	S	W	SW	WNW	S
18	WSW	WSW	NW	SSW	WSW	SW	NW	SSW
19	NW	W	ENE	WNW	NW	W	ENE	WNW
20	NE	SW	S	W	NE	SW	S	W
21	ENE	SW	W	W	ENE	SW	W	W
22	NE	WSW	NE	SW	NE	WSW	NE	SW
23	SW	W	NNE	W	SW	W	NNE	W
24	SW	NW	E	SSW	SW	NW	E	SSW
25	SW	S	ESE	SSW	SW	S	ESE	SSW
26	WSW	SSW	ESE	WSW	WSW	SSW	ESE	WSW
27	ENE	NW	SE	SSW	ENE	NW	SE	SSW
28	ENE	SW	E	SSW	ENE	SW	E	SSW
29	E	N	SSE	SW	E	N	SSE	SW
30	ENE	WSW	E	ENE	ENE	WSW	E	ENE
31	W	NE	SSE	SSW	W	NE	SSE	SSW
Monthly Vector Resultant	W	SW	ESE	SSW	W	SW	SE	SW
Daily Vector Mean	1.1	4.0	0.8	2.5	1.4	6.4	1.0	5.2

TABLE 10

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TOLEDO, OHIO - 1953

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	NNE 10	W 2	SW 2	SW 5	NNE 11	W 2	SW 3	SW 8
2	NW 6	SW 12	NNW 2	SW 3	NW 7	SW 18	NNW 2	SW 5
3	SSW 5	N 6	E 9	SSW 4	SSW 6	N 9	E 14	SSW 7
4	SSW 11	SE 4	SW 9	SW 8	SSW 12	SE 7	SW 15	SW 12
5	SW 18	SSW 5	NNE 8	WSW 7	SW 20	SSW 8	NNE 14	WSW 11
6	WSW 6	WSW 11	NE 8	SSW 5	WSW 6	WSW 18	NE 13	SSW 8
7	NE 7	WSW 8	NNW 4	NNW 11	NE 8	WSW 14	NNW 6	WSW 18
8	S 8	NNW 8	W 6	N 2	S 9	NNW 13	W 9	N 4
9	W 8	NW 9	N 10	S 2	W 9	NW 14	N 15	S 3
10	E 8	N 4	NNW 4	ESE 3	E 9	N 6	NNW 6	ESE 5
11	E 2	SSW 4	S 4	S 9	E 2	SSW 6	S 6	S 14
12	SSW 5	ESE 4	SW 6	W 20	SSW 6	ESE 6	SW 10	W 32
13	NE 9	SE 3	ENE 4	W 12	NE 10	SE 5	ENE 6	W 20
14	NE 10	ESE 3	W 5	SW 2	NE 12	ESE 5	W 7	SW 3
15	E 6	ENE 7	NNW 6	WSW 5	E 7	ENE 11	NNW 10	WSW 10
16	SSE 10	ENE 8	WSW 7	NNW 6	SSE 11	ENE 13	WSW 10	NNW 10
17	NW 6	SSE 1	NNE 8	ENE 6	NW 7	SSE 1	NNE 12	ENE 10
18	NNW 2	S 8	N 3	SSE 8	NNW 2	S 13	N 5	SSE 14
19	SSW 8	SW 2	NW 3	SSW 8	SSW 10	SW 4	NW 5	SSW 14
20	SSW 11	NW 2	ENE 1	WSW 8	SSW 13	NW 2	ENE 1	WSW 12
21	NNW 8	ENE 9	NE 2	NNW 10	NNW 8	ENE 15	NE 2	NNW 16
22	NNW 7	E 2	ESE 1	NNW 6	NNW 8	E 2	ESE 2	NNW 9
23	NNE 7	NW 16	WSW 2	SSE 4	NNE 8	NW 25	WSW 3	SSE 6
24	ESE 12	NE 9	WSW 1	S 8	ESE 13	NE 14	WSW 2	S 14
25	SSW 16	S 7	S 2	SSW 18	SSW 18	S 11	S 4	SSW 28
26	SW 8	SW 11	SSW 4	WSW 4	SW 8	SW 18	SSW 6	WSW 6
27	ESE 4	NNW 5	SSW 7	NNW 8	ESE 5	NNW 8	SSW 11	NNW 13
28	SSW 8	ESE 5	WSW 4	WSW 7	SSW 10	ESE 8	WSW 7	WSW 12
29	NE 5	SW 10	SSW 7	SSW 10	NE 5	SW 16	SSW 12	SSW 16
30	SW 3	NE 8	WSW 7	W 4	SW 4	NE 14	WSW 12	W 6
31	ENE 3	ENE 3	SW 3	W 4	ENE 5	ENE 5	SW 5	W 6
Monthly Vector Resultant	SSW 56	WSW 26	NNW 33	SW 142	SSW (200°) 65	WSW (245°) 39	W (274°) 53	WSW (237°) 230
Daily Vector Mean	SSW 1.9	WSW 0.7	NNW 1.1	SW 4.7	SSW 2.2	WSW 1.3	W 1.7	WSW 7.7

TABLE 11

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TOLEDO, OHIO - 1954

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	SW 16	W 11	WSW 5	WSW 4	SW 18	W 18	WSW 8	WSW 7
2	WSW 12	SSE 3	SSW 5	SSW 12	WSW 14	SSE 5	SSW 8	SSW 20
3	ESE 7	ENE 11	WSW 12	WNW 8	ESE 8	ENE 18	WSW 19	WNW 12
4	W 9	NNE 2	WSW 6	SE 5	W 10	NNE 3	WSW 10	SE 8
5	W 13	NNW 12	WNW 8	SW 11	W 15	NNW 19	WNW 12	SW 17
6	W 7	SW 6	NNW 4	ESE 3	W 8	SW 10	NNW 6	ESE 5
7	SSE 4	NNE 2	NE 4	SW 11	SSE 4	NNE 4	NE 6	SW 18
8	SW 7	NNW 3	S 3	N 7	SW 8	NNW 5	S 5	N 11
9	WSW 5	E 4	W 4	ENE 7	WSW 6	E 6	W 7	ENE 11
10	WSW 6	E 7	W 10	W 8	WSW 7	E 11	W 15	W 12
11	ENE 6	NE 3	WNW 18	N 10	ENE 7	NE 5	WNW 27	N 16
12	SW 6	SSW 10	NW 9	SSW 2	SW 7	SSW 17	NW 14	SSW 3
13	E 2	NW 5	WSW 2	S 2	E 3	NW 8	WSW 4	S 3
14	S 6	W 8	S 7	ENE 13	S 7	W 13	S 12	ENE 21
15	SSW 6	NNW 6	WSW 5	ESE 6	SSW 7	NNW 10	WSW 8	ESE 10
16	SSE 6	ENE 4	ESE 2	WNW 4	SSE 6	ENE 7	ESE 4	WNW 6
17	ESE 4	ESE 3	ENE 8	SSE 4	ESE 4	ESE 4	ENE 13	SSE 6
18	ENE 10	SW 6	SSE 7	SSE 7	ENE 11	SW 9	SSE 11	SSE 11
19	ESE 4	NW 7	WSW 11	WSW 14	ESE 4	NW 11	WSW 18	WSW 22
20	S 6	SW 6	NE 4	WSW 7	S 8	SW 10	NE 6	WSW 11
21	SW 10	NNE 10	ENE 6	W 16	SW 11	NNE 17	ENE 10	W 25
22	WSW 12	NE 10	ENE 7	WNW 12	WSW 14	NE 16	ENE 12	WNW 19
23	N 7	NE 3	SW 6	SE 2	N 8	NE 5	SW 9	SE 2
24	SW 6	ESE 1	SW 9	SSE 8	SW 6	ESE 1	SW 14	SSE 13
25	SW 12	NNE 3	SW 6	WSW 8	SW 13	NNE 5	SW 10	WSW 13
26	WSW 10	ENE 3	NE 6	W 10	WSW 11	ENE 5	NE 10	W 15
27	NNW 12	SW 6	ENE 4	SSW 8	NNW 14	SW 9	ENE 7	SSW 14
28	NNE 7	SSW 4	ESE 2	SSW 4	NNE 8	SSW 6	ESE 4	SSW 6
29	W 4	W 4	W 6	S 13	W 4	W 7	W 10	S 20
30	WSW 7	WSW 3	N 10	SSW 11	WSW 8	WSW 5	N 16	SSW 18
31	SSW 4	SSW 4	NW 11	SSW 11	SSW 8	SSW 6	NW 18	SSW 18
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 110	NW 28	W 76	SW 104	SW (236°) 125	WNW (303°) 72	W (269°) 135	SW (225°) 165
Daily Vector Mean	3.7	NW 0.9	W 2.4	SW 3.5	SW 4.2	WNW 2.3	W 4.4	SW 5.5

TABLE 12

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TOLEDO, OHIO - 1955

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	NW	SW	NW	NNW	NW	SW	NNW	NNW
2	ENE	W	WSW	E	ENE	W	WSW	E
3	SE	NE	W	ENE	SE	NE	W	ENE
4	SSW	WSW	WSW	NNW	SSW	WSW	WSW	NNW
5	SSW	WNW	WSW	N	SSW	WNW	WSW	N
6	SSE	S	S	W	SSE	NW	S	W
7	S	SE	WNW	N	S	SE	WNW	N
8	E	SSW	NE	E	E	SSW	NE	E
9	ENE	W	NE	SSE	ENE	W	NE	SSE
10	ENE	NNE	N	SW	ENE	NNE	N	SW
11	SSW	NE	NNE	NNW	SSW	NE	NNE	NNW
12	W	ENE	NE	W	W	ENE	NE	W
13	WNW	NE	N	E	WNW	NE	N	E
14	WNW	WSW	WSW	SW	WNW	WSW	WSW	SW
15	NNW	SW	WSW	SSE	NNW	SW	WSW	SSE
16	WNW	SW	NW	S	WNW	SW	NW	S
17	ENE	WSW	ENE	SE	ENE	WSW	ENE	SE
18	SE	NW	NNE	SW	SE	NW	NNE	SW
19	SSE	ENE	NW	W	SSE	ENE	NW	W
20	W	NW	SW	N	W	NW	SW	N
21	WNW	S	WSW	E	WNW	S	WSW	E
22	WNW	SW	W	ENE	WNW	SW	W	ENE
23	W	WSW	NNE	ENE	W	WSW	NNE	ENE
24	WNW	NE	E	NW	WNW	NE	E	NW
25	N	E	NE	N	N	E	NE	N
26	N	SW	S	ENE	N	SW	S	ENE
27	ESE	WSW	WNW	S	ESE	WSW	WNW	S
28	E	ENE	SE	WSW	E	ENE	SE	WSW
29	SW	NE	SSW	SSE	SW	NE	SSW	SSE
30	SW	S	W	WSW	SW	S	W	WSW
31	SSW	SSW	W	WSW	SSW	SSW	W	WSW
Monthly Vector Resultant	W 59	WSW 47	WNW 59	W 12	WNW (284°) 86	WSW (238°) 56	WNW (300°) 90	W (265°) 16
Daily Vector Mean	W 2.0	WSW 1.5	WNW 2.0	W 0.4	WNW 2.8	WSW 1.8	WNW 2.9	W 0.5

TABLE 13

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TOLEDO, OHIO - 1956

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	NNW	SSW	NNE	7	NNW	SSW	NNE	11
2	NNE	NNE	NE	9	NNE	NNE	NE	14
3	NNW	NE	NE	7	NNW	NE	NE	11
4	NNW	ENE	S	10	NNW	ENE	S	16
5	ENE	ENE	NNE	2	ENE	ENE	NNE	4
6	ESE	N	NNW	8	ESE	N	NNW	13
7	S	SSW	NNW	5	S	SSW	NNW	8
8	N	SSW	SW	7	N	SSW	SW	12
9	N	SSW	SW	10	N	SSW	SW	16
10	NW	NW	W	9	NW	NW	W	15
11	SSW	SSW	SW	7	SSW	SSW	SW	12
12	WSW	SW	SSW	3	WSW	SW	SSW	5
13	SW	SW	SSW	10	SW	SW	SSW	16
14	WSW	NNW	W	9	WSW	NNW	W	14
15	W	SSW	WSW	7	W	SSW	WSW	10
16	SSE	N	WSW	9	SSE	N	WSW	15
17	ESE	NE	S	7	ESE	NE	S	10
18	NE	NE	SSW	6	NE	NE	SSW	10
19	ENE	ESE	NNW	10	ENE	ESE	NNW	16
20	S	WSW	N	9	S	WSW	N	14
21	WSW	SW	NNW	3	WSW	SW	NNW	4
22	WSW	SW	SSW	13	WSW	SW	SSW	20
23	SW	SW	WSW	7	SW	SW	WSW	12
24	W	SW	NW	7	W	SW	NW	11
25	NNW	WSW	NNW	3	NNW	WSW	NNW	5
26	SE	W	SSW	6	SE	W	SSW	9
27	W	W	SW	12	W	W	SW	19
28	NW	N	WSW	12	NW	N	WSW	18
29	SSW	E	SW	11	SSW	E	SW	17
30	S	E	SSW	7	S	E	SSW	11
31	WSW	S	SSW	10	WSW	S	SSW	16
Monthly Vector Resultant	54	72	122	76	W (272°)	SW (230°)	WSW (243°)	WSW (236°)
Daily Vector Mean	1.8	2.4	4.0	2.6	82	106	191	118
	WSW	SW	WSW	SW	W	SW	WSW	WSW
					2.7	3.4	6.2	3.9

TABLE 14

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TOLEDO, OHIO - 1957

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds		
	June	July	August	September	June	July
1	WSW	NNW	ENE	WSW	WSW	NNW
2	ENE	WSW	SSE	ENE	ENE	WSW
3	NE	SW	SW	NE	NE	SW
4	WSW	SW	NNW	WSW	WSW	SW
5	ESE	NNW	N	ESE	ENE	NNW
6	NNW	WSW	NNW	NNW	NNW	NNW
7	ENE	SW	WSW	ENE	ENE	WSW
8	ENE	SW	SW	ESE	ESE	SW
9	ESE	NNW	W	ESE	SSE	W
10	SSE	NNW	W	SW	SW	W
11	SW	NNW	NNF	SW	SW	NNW
12	E	SW	ENE	E	SW	NNW
13	S	WSW	ESE	S	SW	NNW
14	SSW	NE	SW	SSW	SW	NNW
15	SW	ENE	W	SW	SW	NNW
16	SW	ENE	N	SW	SW	NNW
17	SE	ENE	NE	SE	SW	NNW
18	SW	NE	ESE	SW	SW	NNW
19	NNW	NE	E	NNW	SW	NNW
20	WSW	SSW	NW	WSW	WSW	NNW
21	SSW	WSW	NE	SSW	SSW	NNW
22	SSW	W	ENE	SSW	SSW	NNW
23	SW	NE	WSW	SW	SW	NNW
24	NNW	NE	SSW	NNW	NNW	NNW
25	WSW	E	N	WSW	WSW	NNW
26	SSW	SE	NNW	SSW	SSW	NNW
27	SSW	E	NE	SSW	SSW	NNW
28	SSW	ENE	ENE	W	W	NNW
29	W	SSW	N	NNW	NNW	NNW
30	NNW	W	E	NNW	NNW	NNW
31	N	N	E	NNW	NNW	NNW
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 127	NNW 53	NNW 41	SW 201	SW 201	NNW 80
Daily Vector Mean	4.2	1.7	1.3	6.7	6.7	2.6
						2.2

No
Record
Taken
August 31,
1957, to
April 1,
1958

NNW (348°)

NNW (290°)

NNW (220°)

NNW (201)

NNW (201)

NNW (201)

NNW (201)

NNW (201)

NNW (201)

NNW (201)

NNW (201)

NNW (201)

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NNW (201)

NNW (201)

NNW (201)

NNW (201)

NNW (201)

TABLE 15

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TOLEDO, OHIO - 1958

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds				
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	WNW 7	WSW 17	NE 7	WNW 7	WNW 10	WSW 27	NE 12	WNW 10
2	ENE 11	SW 11	ESE 3	SSE 5	ENE 5	SW 17	ESE 5	SSE 8
3	E 10	S 1	N 9	SSW 9	E 16	S 2	N 14	SSW 15
4	SE 7	SSW 4	N 5	WSW 10	SE 10	SSW 7	N 8	WSW 16
5	NW 8	SW 11	SW 10	E 9	NW 13	SW 17	SW 16	E 15
6	N 8	S 1	SW 12	SW 13	N 13	S 2	SW 18	SW 21
7	S 12	WSW 5	SW 10	WNW 12	S 19	WSW 8	SW 16	WNW 18
8	WSW 16	NW 8	WNW 3	NW 7	WSW 25	NW 12	WNW 6	NW 10
9	SE 10	S 6	SSW 5	SW 13	SE 16	S 9	SSW 8	SW 20
10	WSW 10	WSW 9	WSW 14	WNW 12	WSW 16	WSW 15	WSW 23	WNW 19
11	W 5	NE 1	WNW 3	NNE 5	W 8	NE 2	NNW 5	NNE 9
12	SSE 6	NE 3	SW 6	WSW 5	SSE 10	NE 6	SW 10	WSW 8
13	SW 12	SE 6	E 5	WSW 8	SW 18	SE 10	E 7	WSW 13
14	N 8	S 9	SW 5	SSW 11	N 12	S 15	SW 9	SSW 17
15	NNW 6	WSW 8	WSW 10	SW 14	NNW 10	WSW 13	WSW 16	SSW 23
16	WNW 13	WNW 11	NNE 4	NNE 3	WNW 20	WNW 18	NNE 7	NNE 4
17	WNW 8	NE 7	W 7	ESE 3	WNW 13	NE 10	W 12	ESE 6
18	ESE 3	S 1	NNW 7	WNW 13	ESE 4	S 1	NNW 10	NNW 20
19	SW 12	WNW 10	SW 6	W 3	SW 18	WNW 16	SW 9	W 6
20	SW 6	E 12	SW 13	SSE 7	SW 9	E 18	SW 21	SSE 11
21	NNE 8	ENE 9	WNW 6	WNW 5	NNE 13	ENE 14	WNW 10	WNW 9
22	SSW 7	SSW 3	N 9	NW 3	SSW 10	SSW 6	N 14	NW 5
23	NNE 3	SSW 1	ESE 4	S 7	NNE 5	SSW 2	ESE 6	S 12
24	SSW 7	SW 3	SW 5	SW 14	SSW 12	SW 4	SW 8	SW 23
25	SSW 11	WSW 7	WNW 8	SW 17	SSW 17	WSW 12	WNW 12	SW 27
26	W 14	W 2	WNW 6	NNW 5	W 22	W 4	SSW 9	NNW 7
27	WNW 9	SSE 3	S 7	NNW 9	WNW 14	SSE 6	S 12	NNW 14
28	WSW 8	WSW 13	SSW 7	NNW 10	WSW 13	WSW 21	SSW 12	NNW 16
29	SW 15	WSW 12	SSW 9	SSW 7	SW 23	WSW 19	SSW 14	SSW 10
30	WSW 16	W 6	SW 15	SW 14	WSW 25	W 10	SW 24	SW 22
31	WSW 118	ENE 8	W 16	WSW 130	WSW (254°) 209	WSW (238°) 152	WSW (245°) 207	WSW (249°) 207
Monthly Vector Resultant		WSW 94	WSW 128	WSW				
Daily Vector Mean	3.9	3.0	4.1	4.3	7.0	4.9	6.7	6.7

TABLE 17

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT BUFFALO, NEW YORK - 1950

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	SW 12	WSW 8	N 7	ENE 4	SW 11	WSW 10	N 8	ENE 4
2	SSW 12	S 14	SSW 13	NNE 10	SSW 11	S 15	SSW 15	NNE 11
3	SW 10	SW 4	SW 12	NNW 3	SW 9	SW 4	SW 14	NNW 4
4	WSW 16	SW 6	W 9	NW 12	WSW 14	SW 7	W 10	NW 14
5	SW 18	SSW 6	WNW 10	NW 7	SW 16	SSW 7	WNW 11	NW 8
6	SW 19	WSW 10	N 6	S 4	SW 17	WSW 11	N 7	S 4
7	SW 10	SW 12	ENE 6	SE 2	SW 9	SW 14	ENE 7	SE 3
8	SSW 9	SSW 8	SSE 7	E 5	SSW 8	SSW 9	SSE 8	E 6
9	S 11	ESE 5	SSW 10	SE 5	S 10	ESE 6	SSW 11	SE 6
10	SW 14	E 8	SSW 12	ENE 9	SW 13	E 9	SSW 14	ENE 10
11	NNW 13	S 4	NNW 9	NE 13	NNW 12	S 4	NNW 10	NE 15
12	SSW 10	SSW 10	N 4	NE 15	SSW 9	SSW 12	N 4	NE 17
13	S 9	SSW 10	SW 7	SSE 10	S 8	SSW 11	SW 8	SSE 12
14	NE 4	WSW 10	SSW 3	SSW 11	NE 4	WSW 11	SSW 3	SSW 12
15	ESE 6	SSE 10	SSE 6	WSW 17	ESE 5	SSE 11	SSE 6	WSW 19
16	SSE 11	SSW 10	S 11	NW 8	SSE 10	SSW 12	S 12	NW 9
17	NNW 16	SSW 19	SSW 6	W 1	NNW 14	SSW 22	SSW 7	W 1
18	SW 3	WSW 12	NNE 7	SSE 9	SW 3	WSW 14	NNE 8	SSE 10
19	S 5	W 2	SW 3	NNW 3	S 5	W 3	SW 3	NNW 4
20	SSW 14	NE 13	NNW 8	E 5	SSW 13	NE 14	NNW 9	E 5
21	WSW 9	WSW 1	SW 9	ENE 6	WSW 8	WSW 1	SW 10	ENE 6
22	S 4	S 8	S 9	SSW 4	S 4	S 9	S 10	SSW 5
23	SSW 14	SE 10	S 11	WNW 14	SSW 13	SE 12	S 12	WNW 16
24	SSW 19	SSE 11	SSE 5	W 14	SSW 17	SSE 13	SSE 6	W 15
25	NNW 8	SW 18	SSW 8	S 10	NNW 7	SW 20	SSW 10	S 11
26	SSW 12	WSW 8	ENE 11	SSW 14	SSW 11	WSW 8	ENE 3	SSW 16
27	W 18	SSW 13	S 8	SE 9	W 16	SSW 14	S 9	SE 10
28	SW 14	SSW 8	SSW 12	SSE 7	SW 13	SSW 8	SSW 13	SSE 8
29	SW 8	SSW 13	SSW 12	ESE 4	SW 7	SSW 15	SSW 13	ESE 5
30	SW 10	SW 10	NE 10	SSE 6	SW 9	SW 11	NE 11	SSE 7
31	SSW 11	SSW 11	S 6		SSW 12	SSW 12	S 7	
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 271	SSW 217	SSW 112	S 24	SW (221°) 254	SSW (204°) 246	SSW (208°) 133	S (177°) 27
Daily Vector Mean	SW 9	SSW 7	SSW 3.6	S 0.8	SW 8.5	SSW 8.0	SSW 4.3	S 0.9

TABLE 18
LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT BUFFALO, NEW YORK - 1951

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds				
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	SSW 10	SSW 13	WNW 10	NE 16	SSW 11	SSW 15	WNW 12	NE 18
2	N 3	SW 13	SSW 10	NNE 4	N 4	SW 14	SSW 11	NNE 4
3	SSW 6	SE 4	WSW 9	SW 2	SSW 7	SE 5	WSW 10	SW 3
4	WSW 8	SSW 13	N 12	W 6	WSW 8	SSW 15	N 13	W 7
5	NNE 8	WNW 12	NNW 4	ESE 5	NNE 10	WNW 14	NNW 5	ESE 5
6	NNE 3	WNW 11	SE 9	SSW 7	NNE 3	WNW 12	SE 10	SSW 8
7	NE 7	SSW 12	SSE 7	WNW 13	NE 8	SSW 13	SE 8	WNW 15
8	ENE 10	SSW 15	SW 13	SW 10	ENE 12	SSW 17	SW 15	SW 11
9	ESE 10	SSW 20	SSW 12	SSE 3	ESE 11	SSW 22	SSW 14	SSE 3
10	SW 12	SW 14	ENE 7	SSE 15	SW 13	SW 16	ENE 8	SSE 17
11	SW 10	NNE 12	NE 4	SSW 16	SW 11	NNE 14	NE 4	SSW 18
12	E 8	N 9	NNE 5	S 8	E 8	N 10	NNE 6	S 9
13	SE 10	NNW 6	WSW 1	SSW 4	SE 11	NNW 6	WSW 1	SSW 4
14	WNW 9	S 7	WNW 2	SSW 9	WNW 10	S 8	WNW 3	SSW 10
15	WSW 4	SSW 10	NE 10	SW 12	WSW 5	SSW 11	NE 11	SW 13
16	SSW 9	SW 8	SW 9	SW 11	SSW 10	SW 10	SW 10	SW 12
17	SE 7	NE 13	NNE 8	SSW 10	SE 8	NE 14	NNE 9	SSW 11
18	S 7	SE 2	SW 4	SW 11	S 8	SE 3	SW 4	SW 12
19	SSE 8	WSW 8	S 5	SSW 12	SSE 8	WSW 9	S 6	SSW 14
20	SSW 16	W 15	SW 9	S 7	SSW 18	W 17	SW 10	S 8
21	SW 12	S 16	SSW 21	SSW 12	SW 13	S 18	SSW 24	SSW 13
22	ESE 9	SSW 16	W 18	SSW 18	ESE 10	SSW 18	W 20	SSW 20
23	SW 16	WSW 7	NNW 8	W 13	SW 17	WSW 8	NNW 9	W 14
24	SSW 11	NNW 4	N 3	S 8	SSW 12	NNW 4	N 3	S 9
25	W 6	SSW 9	NNE 3	WSW 5	W 7	SSW 10	NNE 4	WSW 5
26	SSE 3	SW 16	ESE 4	E 5	SSE 3	SW 18	ESE 5	E 5
27	SW 15	SSW 5	SSW 2	SW 22	SW 17	SSW 5	SSW 3	SW 24
28	SW 1	NE 9	E 6	W 20	SW 1	NE 10	E 7	W 22
29	SW 14	NNE 8	SSW 7	W 7	SW 16	NNE 9	SSW 8	W 8
30	S 6	SSW 10	SSE 2	SSE 8	S 7	SSW 11	SSE 3	SSE 8
31	SSW 13	SW 13	S 8		SSW 7	SW 15	S 8	
Monthly Vector Resultant	SSW 134	SW 176	SW 66	SW 195	SSW (198°) 145	SW (222°) 200	SW (222°) 84	SW (215°) 218
Daily Vector Mean	4.5	5.7	2.1	6.5	4.8	6.5	2.7	7.3

TABLE 19

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT BUFFALO, NEW YORK - 1952

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	NW	ESE	SSE	S	NW	ESE	SSE	S
2	WSW	SSE	SSE	SSW	WSW	SSE	SSE	SSW
3	S	SSW	SW	WSW	S	SSW	SW	WSW
4	W	SW	SSE	SW	W	SW	SSE	SW
5	SSW	WSW	SW	S	SSW	WSW	SW	S
6	SSW	E	NE	N	SSW	E	NE	N
7	WNW	SSE	NNE	NNE	WNW	SSE	NNE	NNE
8	SSW	SSE	ESE	E	SSW	SSE	ESE	E
9	SSW	WSW	SE	S	SW	WSW	SE	S
10	WSW	WNW	SW	SSW	WSW	WNW	SW	SSW
11	WNW	SSW	SW	S	WNW	SSW	SW	S
12	W	SSW	NE	SSW	W	SSW	NE	SSW
13	ESE	S	WNW	S	ESE	S	WNW	S
14	SSE	SSW	S	S	SSE	SSW	S	S
15	WNW	SW	S	SW	WNW	SW	S	SW
16	ENE	SW	SW	SW	ENE	SW	SW	SW
17	SW	SSW	NW	SW	SW	SSW	NW	SW
18	SW	SSW	ENE	S	SW	SSW	ENE	S
19	W	SW	ENE	WSW	W	SW	ENE	WSW
20	NW	SSW	SSE	SW	NW	SSW	SSE	SW
21	E	SW	SSW	S	E	SW	SSW	S
22	ENE	SSW	NW	SSE	ENE	SSW	NW	SSE
23	S	SW	NW	S	S	SW	NW	S
24	SSW	WNW	SW	SSW	SSW	WNW	SW	SSW
25	SW	S	S	S	SW	S	S	S
26	SW	SSW	S	SW	SW	SSW	S	SW
27	N	W	E	S	N	W	E	S
28	N	SW	SE	S	N	SW	SE	S
29	SE	N	S	SSW	SE	N	S	SSW
30	NE	S	ENE	N	NE	S	ENE	N
31		NNW	SE	N		NNW	SE	N
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW	SSW	S	SSW	SW	SSW	S	SSW
Daily Vector Mean	161	224	112	237	181	273	134	237
Daily Vector Mean	5.4	7.2	3.6	7.9	6.0	8.9	4.3	7.9

TABLE 21

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT BUFFALO, NEW YORK - 1954

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	S 12	SSW 12	WSW 9	SW 14	S 13	SSW 13	WSW 10	SW 15
2	SW 25	W 9	SSE 9	SSW 16	SW 28	W 10	SSE 10	SSW 17
3	E 2	NE 6	SW 8	WSW 14	E 3	NE 6	SW 9	WSW 16
4	SSW 18	N 2	WSW 12	S 4	SSW 19	N 3	WSW 13	S 5
5	SW 21	WNW 8	NW 4	SSW 16	SW 24	WNW 9	NW 4	SSW 17
6	SW 16	SW 13	NW 14	NE 7	SW 17	SW 15	NW 16	NE 8
7	SSW 13	NW 8	WSW 9	SSW 18	SSW 14	NW 9	WSW 10	SSW 20
8	NE 3	NW 10	SSW 8	NW 5	NE 3	NW 11	SSW 9	NW 6
9	E 8	W 6	ENE 6	NE 10	E 8	W 7	ENE 7	NE 11
10	SSW 10	ENE 2	SSW 11	S 6	SSW 12	ENE 2	SSW 13	S 7
11	NE 6	E 4	W 25	NW 14	NE 6	E 4	W 28	NW 16
12	SSW 9	S 8	WSW 18	WNW 3	SSW 10	S 10	WSW 20	WNW 3
13	SW 12	WSW 18	WSW 10	S 11	SW 14	WSW 20	WSW 11	S 12
14	SSW 13	SW 14	S 10	NE 10	SSW 15	SW 16	S 11	NE 11
15	ENE 4	NW 15	SW 13	ENE 11	ENE 4	NW 17	SW 14	ENE 13
16	SSE 8	WSW 9	SW 11	N 4	SSE 9	WSW 10	SW 12	N 4
17	SSE 14	SSE 3	WNW 9	NE 4	SSE 16	SSE 3	WNW 10	NE 10
18	NE 4	SSW 11	SSE 7	E 2	NE 4	SSW 13	SSE 8	E 3
19	S 9	WNW 8	SW 16	SSW 15	S 10	WNW 9	SW 18	SSW 17
20	SSW 10	SSW 8	NNW 10	WSW 19	SSW 12	SSW 9	NNW 11	WSW 21
21	SW 15	N 12	NE 10	S 13	SW 17	N 13	NE 11	S 15
22	SW 12	NNW 14	E 9	WSW 22	SW 13	NNW 15	E 10	WSW 25
23	NNW 6	NW 8	S 10	WSW 15	NNW 6	NW 9	S 11	WSW 17
24	SW 8	SW 8	SSW 18	ENE 2	SW 8	SW 10	SSW 21	ENE 3
25	SSW 15	SW 2	SW 13	SSW 15	SSW 17	SW 2	SW 15	SSW 17
26	SW 14	SSW 12	NE 8	SSW 16	SW 15	SSW 13	NE 10	SSW 17
27	WNW 22	SSW 12	ESE 6	SSW 10	WNW 24	SSW 14	ESE 6	SSW 11
28	NW 18	SSW 8	NNE 5	WSW 8	NW 20	SSW 9	NNE 5	WSW 9
29	NW 6	WSW 1	N 8	SSE 9	NW 7	WSW 1	N 9	SSE 10
30	S 10	SSW 14	NE 10	SSW 17	S 11	SSW 16	NE 11	SSW 19
31	SW 13	SW 13	WNW 7	SSW 15	SW 15	WNW 8	SSW 15	SSW 19
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 220	WSW 156	WSW 146	SW 102	SW 252	WSW 179	WSW 157	SW (216°) 198
Daily Vector Mean	SW 7.3	WSW 5.0	WSW 4.7	SW 3.4	SW 8.4	WSW 5.8	WSW 5.1	SW 6.6

TABLE 22
LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT BUFFALO, NEW YORK - 1955

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	NNW 11	SW 16	SW 15	SW 6	NNW 12	SW 18	SW 17	SW 7
2	N 10	SW 20	W 5	0	N 11	SW 23	W 6	0
3	NNE 1	N 5	SSW 6	E 5	NNE 1	N 5	SSW 6	E 5
4	SW 10	SW 12	WSW 10	S 10	SW 11	SW 13	WSW 12	S 11
5	SSW 8	SW 11	SW 14	W 5	SSW 9	SW 12	SW 16	W 6
6	ESE 9	NW 4	SSW 10	SSW 5	ESE 10	NW 4	SSW 11	SSW 11
7	SSE 9	NE 8	W 6	NNW 13	SSE 10	NE 9	W 7	NNW 14
8	ENE 10	SSW 8	NE 16	ENE 4	ENE 11	SSW 8	NE 18	ENE 5
9	ENE 12	SSW 12	SE 10	ESE 8	ENE 13	SSW 13	SE 11	ESE 9
10	SSE 2	NW 10	SE 9	S 21	SSE 2	NW 11	SE 10	S 23
11	SE 9	NNE 12	NW 4	NNE 4	SE 10	NNE 13	NW 4	NNE 5
12	SW 11	NE 13	NE 12	W 7	SW 12	NE 14	NE 17	W 8
13	W 13	E 5	NE 23	E 7	W 15	E 5	NE 26	E 8
14	WSW 10	S 10	SSE 16	S 12	WSW 11	S 11	SSE 17	S 13
15	SSW 13	SSW 12	SSW 10	NW 2	SSW 14	SSW 13	SSW 12	NW 2
16	SW 16	SW 20	SSE 1	ENE 5	SW 18	SW 23	SSE 1	ENE 6
17	SW 13	SW 16	ENE 4	S 8	SW 15	SW 17	ENE 4	S 9
18	ENE 3	SW 12	NNE 8	S 10	ENE 3	SW 13	NNE 10	S 11
19	SSW 5	N 14	SW 6	S 10	SSW 6	N 15	SW 7	S 12
20	S 8	E 2	SSW 14	NW 8	S 9	E 2	SSW 15	NW 9
21	SW 13	SSW 12	SSW 18	N 6	SW 15	SSW 13	SSW 20	N 7
22	SW 14	SSW 12	SW 8	ENE 13	SW 16	SSW 13	SW 9	ENE 15
23	WSW 15	SW 20	NNW 12	E 13	WSW 17	SW 22	NNW 13	E 14
24	SW 13	NNE 10	ENE 4	NW 6	SW 15	NNE 11	ENE 4	NW 6
25	SW 7	SE 2	SSE 7	NW 9	SW 8	SE 3	SSE 8	NW 10
26	W 9	SSW 10	SSW 12	NE 6	W 10	SSW 11	SSW 13	NE 7
27	WSW 9	SSW 9	NNE 8	SSE 14	WSW 10	SSW 10	NNE 8	SSE 16
28	SW 9	ENE 12	ENE 11	WSW 13	SW 10	ENE 13	ENE 13	WSW 15
29	SSW 10	ENE 8	SE 4	SSE 9	SSW 12	ENE 9	SE 4	SSE 10
30	SSW 12	SSE 4	SSW 14	SSW 11	SSW 14	SSE 5	SSW 15	SSW 12
31	SSW	SSW 10	WSW 16		SSW	SSW 11	WSW 18	
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 170	SW 148	SSW 81	S 89	SW (220°) 193	SW (216°) 154	SSW (194°) 99	S (173°) 80
Daily Vector Mean	SW 5.7	SW 4.8	SSW 2.6	S 3.0	SW 6.4	SW 5.0	SSW 3.2	S 2.7

TABLE 23

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT BUFFALO, NEW YORK - 1956

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June		July		August		September	
	SW	N	SSW	SSW	SSW	SSW	SSW	SSW
1	16	13	13	13	5	7	18	10
2	6	13	13	13	13	14	6	22
3	4	1	1	1	3	5	5	7
4	9	16	16	16	6	9	10	15
5	4	12	12	12	3	8	5	12
6	1	6	6	6	9	9	1	14
7	7	12	12	12	9	10	8	16
8	9	6	6	6	12	5	10	7
9	11	15	15	15	14	5	12	8
10	8	16	16	16	16	7	9	11
11	7	13	13	13	10	10	8	16
12	14	6	6	6	9	5	20	9
13	13	12	12	12	11	12	16	18
14	8	18	18	18	3	11	15	17
15	4	3	3	3	12	9	8	14
16	7	8	8	8	12	9	5	14
17	19	3	3	3	7	7	21	12
18	5	10	10	10	5	14	5	19
19	15	11	11	11	6	11	17	22
20	12	7	7	7	8	14	13	17
21	1	1	1	1	14	14	13	22
22	2	14	14	14	12	7	1	10
23	8	18	18	18	14	8	2	13
24	12	15	15	15	14	9	9	14
25	2	9	9	9	9	10	13	16
26	20	12	12	12	14	11	3	14
27	17	16	16	16	7	11	23	17
28	11	10	10	10	10	5	19	8
29	10	8	8	8	9	7	12	12
30	10	7	7	7	5	11	11	17
31	178	148	148	148	150	91	202	145
Monthly Vector Resultant	SSW	SW	SW	SW	SW	SW	SSW (213°)	SW (220°)
Daily Vector Mean	5.9	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	3.0	5.9	4.8

TABLE 24

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT BUFFALO, NEW YORK - 1957

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	SW	NNW	13	NW	3	S	5	S
2	NNW	WSW	5	SSW	6	S	7	S
3	NE	WSW	19	SSW	12	SW	18	SW
4	SW	SW	13	NW	7	WSW	13	WSW
5	ESE	WSW	19	N	8	W	12	W
6	SSE	WSW	12	W	10	SW	4	SW
7	NNW	SW	8	SW	7	S	4	S
8	E	SSW	11	SSW	9	NW	2	NW
9	SE	W	13	SW	5	E	11	E
10	S	NW	11	NNW	3	SE	6	SE
11	S	WSW	7	SSW	9	WSW	9	WSW
12	WSW	SW	4	N	10	S	8	S
13	S	SE	1	NE	5	SW	13	SW
14	SSW	WSW	9	SSW	12	NNW	1	NNW
15	SW	N	11	NNW	2	S	9	S
16	SSW	NNE	6	NNE	9	WSW	12	WSW
17	SSW	ENE	6	WSW	7	NNE	2	NNE
18	SSW	ESE	5	ENE	2	ENE	4	ENE
19	WSW	S	4	ESE	3	SSE	7	SSE
20	WSW	SSW	8	W	4	SSW	10	SSW
21	SSW	SSW	9	NE	7	S	9	S
22	S	WSW	8	ENE	6	SW	6	SW
23	SW	N	10	S	7	SW	9	SW
24	SE	NNE	8	SSW	7	W	9	W
25	SW	SE	3	SE	3	SW	4	SW
26	SSW	SE	5	WSW	7	NNW	8	NNW
27	SSW	S	3	NNW	6	NW	7	NNW
28	S	SSW	6	E	7	E	8	W
29	WSW	SW	15	ESE	3	E	4	E
30	WSW	SW	11	W	3	S	4	S
31	WSW	WSW	5	NNW	4	WSW	5	S
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 201	WSW 158	WSW 52	SW 136	SW (216°) 245	WSW (244°) 182	WSW (241°) 66	SW (217°) 162
Daily Vector Mean	SW 6.7	WSW 5.1	WSW 1.7	SW 4.5	SW 8.2	WSW 5.9	WSW 2.1	SW 5.4

TABLE 25

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT BUFFALO, NEW YORK - 1958

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds		
	June	July	August	June	July	August
1	SW 12	SW 4	ENE 4	SW 15	SW 20	ENE 5
2	NNE 14	WSW 17	SSW 5	NNE 17	WSW 21	SSW 6
3	ENE 9	WSW 4	S 7	ENE 12	WSW 5	S 8
4	ENE 3	ENE 7	N 10	ENE 3	ENE 9	N 13
5	SW 9	SE 2	SSW 7	SW 11	SE 3	SSW 8
6	N 7	WSW 4	SW 10	N 8	WSW 5	SW 13
7	SSW 5	SSE 3	SW 8	SSW 7	SSE 4	SW 10
8	SW 12	WSW 8	NW 5	SW 15	WSW 10	NW 6
9	NE 5	SW 7	WSW 10	NE 6	SW 8	WSW 13
10	S 5	S 13	SW 11	S 6	S 16	SW 13
11	SW 12	W 4	NNE 5	SW 14	W 5	NNE 6
12	SW 4	SSW 4	SSW 8	SW 5	SSW 5	SSW 10
13	SW 10	SSE 1	NW 4	SW 13	SSE 2	NW 5
14	S 8	S 9	SW 6	W 15	S 12	SW 8
15	W 16	SSW 14	WSW 8	W 9	SSW 18	WSW 10
16	WSW 12	WSW 12	WNW 3	W 19	WSW 15	WNW 4
17	E 1	S 7	WSW 9	WSW 15	NNW 5	WSW 10
18	S 4	WNW 16	NW 11	E 2	S 9	NW 13
19	S 7	WNW 9	SSW 10	S 5	WNW 19	WSW 12
20	WNW 7	SE 4	SW 11	WNW 9	SE 5	SSW 13
21	W 4	SSE 3	W 7	W 5	SSE 4	W 9
22	SSE 5	WSW 2	WNW 1	SSE 7	WSW 3	WNW 1
23	SE 6	SSW 5	SSE 8	SE 7	SSW 6	SSE 10
24	S 12	SW 5	WSW 12	S 14	SW 6	WSW 14
25	SW 19	WSW 1	W 4	SW 23	WSW 2	W 5
26	WSW 17	ESE 3	SE 3	WSW 20	ESE 4	SE 3
27	SW 7	SW 10	S 6	SW 8	SW 13	S 7
28	SSW 9	SW 14	S 8	SSW 11	SW 17	S 9
29	SSW 18	SW 15	SSW 12	SSW 22	SW 19	SSW 14
30		ESE 2	SSW 14		ESE 2	SSW 16
31						
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 161	SW 160	SW 157	SW (228°) 195	SW (226°) 186	SW (230°) 188
Daily Vector Mean	5.4	5.2	5.1	6.5	6.0	6.1
						5.1

TABLE 26

LAKE ERIE - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT BUFFALO, NEW YORK - 1959

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds		
	June	July	August	June	July	August
1	SSW 6	S 8	NNW 8	SSW 7	S 10	NNW 10
2	ENE 9	W 16	NE 5	ENE 11	W 19	NE 6
3	W 7	W 5	SSW 6	W 8	W 6	SSW 7
4	SW 10	SW 7	S 8	SW 13	SW 9	S 10
5	SSW 7	SSW 13	NE 10	SSW 9	SSW 16	NE 12
6	NNW 7	SSW 6	E 9	NNW 8	SSW 7	E 11
7	WSW 5	NW 7	ESE 4	WSW 6	NW 9	ESE 5
8	SSW 9	S 9	E 9	SSW 11	S 11	E 10
9	WSW 13	WSW 12	SSE 2	WSW 16	WSW 15	SSE 2
10	SSW 10	WSW 10	W 11	SSW 12	WSW 12	W 13
11	SSW 7	SW 9	W 11	SSW 8	SW 12	W 13
12	SSW 11	WSW 7	SW 12	SSW 14	WSW 9	SW 14
13	NNW 7	SE 2	WSW 14	NNW 8	SE 3	WSW 18
14	NNW 18	E 7	SW 11	NNW 22	E 8	SW 13
15	NNW 18	ENE 5	SW 10	NNW 22	ENE 6	SW 12
16	NNE 12	SSE 5	SW 10	NNE 14	SSE 6	SW 13
17	NE 12	SW 6	SSW 17	NE 14	SW 7	SSW 21
18	NNE 9	SSW 12	NW 3	NNE 11	SSW 14	NW 4
19	NW 6	W 7	WSW 2	NW 7	W 8	WSW 3
20	W 12	E 6	WSW 8	W 14	E 7	WSW 10
21	SW 7	WSW 4	SW 13	SW 9	WSW 5	SW 16
22	N 4	SW 5	ENE 5	N 5	SW 6	ENE 6
23	SW 5	SSW 9	ESE 5	SW 7	SSW 12	ESE 6
24	SW 2	SW 14	WSW 10	SW 2	SW 17	WSW 13
25	S 3	NW 8	SW 6	S 3	NW 10	SW 8
26	WSW 10	SW 9	SSW 9	WSW 12	SW 11	SSW 11
27	WSW 11	SW 8	SSW 9	WSW 13	SW 10	SSW 16
28	WSW 14	SW 6	SSW 7	WSW 18	SW 7	SSW 9
29	WSW 12	SW 7	S 2	WSW 14	SW 8	S 2
30	NNE 6	SW 8	ESE 3	NNE 8	SW 10	ESE 4
31	W 11	W 11	SSW 6	W 13	SSW 8	SSW 8
Monthly Vector Resultant	W 114	SW 172	SW 132	W 139	SW 214	SW 158
Daily Vector Mean	3.8	5.6	4.2	4.6	6.9	5.1
						4.9

TABLE 27

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TORONTO, ONTARIO - 1948

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June		July		June		July	
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	NW 6	WNW 7	WNW 10	SE 4	NW 10	WNW 12	WNW 18	SE 12
2	NE 3	WSW 6	W 6	SSE 4	NE 5	WSW 9	W 12	SSE 6
3	SSE 3	S 1	WNW 3	ESE 3	SSE 5	S 1	WNW 6	ESE 6
4	WSW 2	SSE 2	NW 2	E 1	WSW 2	SSE 4	NW 5	E 2
5	NNE 12	W 6	NE 9	E 8	NNE 20	W 10	NE 18	E 14
6	W 4	WNW 11	N 11	SE 6	W 6	WNW 18	N 22	SE 12
7	ESE 9	NNE 3	NW 6	SSE 7	ESE 15	NNE 5	NW 12	SSE 13
8	ESE 7	WSW 6	WNW 5	NW 3	ESE 12	WSW 9	WNW 9	NW 6
9	W 2	W 4	WNW 2	NNE 9	W 3	W 6	WNW 6	NNE 17
10	SE 2	SW 7	ENE 2	NNW 4	SE 3	SW 11	ENE 4	NNW 8
11	NW 10	WNW 5	SSW 6	W 3	NW 15	WNW 8	SSW 12	W 6
12	W 6	E 1	W 7	WSW 7	W 10	E 1	W 12	WSW 12
13	NW 9	ESE 2	NW 8	NW 9	NW 14	ESE 4	NW 16	NW 18
14	W 4	E 7	N 12	NE 9	W 7	E 10	N 23	NE 14
15	NW 4	SE 3	NW 2	ESE 9	NW 6	SE 4	NW 5	ESE 18
16	NNW 3	ESE 7	ESE 3	ESE 13	NNW 4	ESE 12	ESE 6	ESE 24
17	NNW 7	W 5	NE 2	SW 5	NNW 11	W 8	NE 4	SW 10
18	WSW 2	WNW 9	SSW 7	WNW 9	WSW 4	WNW 14	SSW 14	WNW 18
19	ENE 3	W 4	NNW 2	E 4	ENE 5	W 7	NNW 4	E 8
20	W 6	W 5	NNE 2	NNW 9	W 4	W 8	NNE 4	NNW 17
21	E 3	W 2	SE 3	NNE 4	W 4	W 4	SE 5	NNE 8
22	ESE 11	ESE 10	E 3	NE 8	ESE 18	ESE 16	E 5	NE 15
23	SSW 5	NW 6	S 3	NE 7	SSW 8	NW 10	S 6	NE 13
24	W 12	NW 16	SSW 8	ENE 5	W 20	NW 26	SSW 16	ENE 10
25	N 4	W 8	W 10	ENE 5	N 7	W 12	W 18	ENE 10
26	SE 2	WSW 12	WNW 4	NW 1	SE 3	WSW 18	WNW 8	NW 2
27	E 8	W 6	WNW 2	NW 3	E 12	W 10	WNW 4	NW 6
28	SSE 5	W 6	NW 4	E 1	SSE 7	W 9	NW 8	E 2
29	SW 13	SW 5	NNW 6	E 6	SW 20	SW 7	NNW 12	E 12
30	WSW 9	W 6	NE 4	S 3	WSW 15	W 10	NE 8	S 6
31	NW 13	NW 13	NE 12	ENE 50	NNW (285°) 56	NW (280°) 160	NE (219°) 137	ENE (65°) 100
Monthly Vector Resultant	WNW 33	W 104	NW 66	ENE 50	WNW (285°) 56	W (280°) 160	NW (219°) 137	ENE (65°) 100
Daily Vector Mean	WNW 1.1	W 3.3	NW 2.1	ENE 1.6	WNW 1.9	W 5.2	NW 4.4	ENE 3.3

TABLE 28

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TORONTO, ONTARIO - 1949

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds		
	June	July	August	June	July	August
1	ESE 4	NE 6	ESE 4	ESE 6	NE 10	ESE 7
2	SE 5	SW 6	ESE 3	SE 8	SW 10	ESE 5
3	WSW 7	S 3	NNE 4	WSW 11	S 4	NNE 7
4	WSW 8	SW 8	WSW 3	WSW 12	SW 7	WSW 5
5	NNW 10	NNE 7	W 5	NNW 15	NNE 11	W 10
6	NW 12	NE 9	SW 6	NW 19	NE 14	SW 11
7	NW 16	NE 10	SW 5	NW 25	NE 17	SW 10
8	SW 2	NE 10	SW 9	SW 3	NE 16	SW 18
9	NE 5	NE 7	WSW 9	NE 8	NE 12	WSW 17
10	ESE 1	NW 6	W 7	ESE 1	NW 10	W 14
11	SSW 4	ENE 1	WSW 8	SSW 7	ENE 2	WSW 15
12	SSW 12	NNE 4	SSW 1	SSW 18	NNE 6	SSW 2
13	S 8	WNW 7	ENE 5	S 14	WNW 11	ENE 10
14	S 12	NE 4	ENE 7	S 18	NE 7	ENE 13
15	E 9	ENE 4	E 10	E 15	ENE 7	E 18
16	E 6	NE 2	NE 10	E 10	NE 4	NE 20
17	NE 11	NE 7	S 6	NE 18	NE 11	S 10
18	E 8	E 1	NNW 8	E 14	E 2	NNW 15
19	ESE 3	SW 8	N 13	ESE 5	SW 12	N 24
20	ESE 2	WNW 4	NW 11	ESE 4	WNW 6	NW 21
21	SW 10	ENE 6	SW 2	SW 16	ENE 10	SW 4
22	NW 12	W 9	SW 2	NW 20	W 15	SW 8
23	SW 5	WNW 6	SW 8	SW 8	WNW 10	SW 14
24	SSW 8	SSW 4	ENE 5	SSW 12	SSW 6	ENE 9
25	SSE 4	SW 6	S 6	SSE 6	SW 9	S 10
26	SSW 12	SW 1	SW 12	SSW 19	SW 2	SSW 22
27	NW 4	SW 10	SW 8	NW 7	SW 17	SW 15
28	NE 10	WSW 8	SW 5	NE 16	WSW 12	SW 10
29	ENE 5	WSW 12	N 8	ENE 7	WSW 18	N 14
30	NE 8	WNW 8	SW 7	NE 14	WNW 12	SW 14
31	NW 42	NW 8	S 12	NW 44	NW 12	S 22
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 42	NW 46	WSW 51	SW 44	NW 74	WSW 104
Daily Vector Mean	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.5	2.3	3.3
						5.8
						ENE (62°) 175
						ENE

TABLE 29
LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TORONTO, ONTARIO - 1950

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	SSW 8	SSW 7	NE 11	WNW 5	SSW 14	SSW 10	NE 20	WNW 9
2	SSW 10	E 3	W 5	NE 4	SSW 17	E 4	W 10	NE 7
3	NW 6	SSW 3	WSW 10	N 5	NW 10	SSW 5	WSW 18	N 10
4	WNW 13	SE 2	WSW 9	NW 13	WNW 21	SE 4	WSW 17	NW 25
5	W 3	ENE 4	WNW 11	NNW 5	W 5	ENE 6	WNW 20	NNW 10
6	WSW 12	WNW 8	NW 3	SSW 3	WSW 19	WNW 13	NW 6	SSW 6
7	SSW 10	SW 5	ESE 3	WSW 2	SSW 15	SW 8	ESE 6	WSW 4
8	S 9	SW 4	S 6	NNE 6	S 15	SW 6	S 10	NNE 12
9	SSW 8	ENE 2	WSW 7	NE 7	SSW 12	ENE 4	WSW 13	NE 13
10	SW 10	NNE 4	WSW 7	NE 13	SW 16	NNE 6	WSW 14	NE 25
11	NW 10	NE 6	NW 6	ENE 16	NW 16	NE 9	NW 10	ENE 30
12	SSW 2	SSW 4	WNW 2	NE 20	SSW 4	SSW 6	WNW 5	NE 38
13	S 6	WSW 7	NNW 4	ENE 15	S 9	WSW 10	NNW 7	ENE 28
14	NE 6	SSW 12	SSW 3	SW 9	NE 10	SSW 18	SSW 6	SW 17
15	ENE 8	NE 6	ENE 5	W 11	ENE 12	NE 10	ENE 9	W 20
16	NE 4	SSW 4	SW 2	NNW 8	NE 7	SSW 7	SW 4	NNW 16
17	NW 18	SW 10	W 0	W 5	NW 28	SW 15	E 1	W 10
18	SW 2	WNW 11	N 6	SSW 8	SW 4	WNW 18	N 12	SSW 15
19	SE 4	WNW 3	NNW 3	NW 6	SE 6	WNW 5	NNW 6	NW 6
20	S 6	NE 8	NW 11	ENE 6	S 10	NE 12	NW 20	ENE 12
21	WNW 8	SSW 3	SW 8	ENE 6	WNW 12	SSW 4	SW 14	ENE 10
22	NE 7	SSW 6	SW 5	SW 3	NE 10	SSW 10	SW 10	SW 6
23	E 3	ENE 4	SSW 10	NNW 12	E 5	ENE 7	SSW 18	NNW 23
24	WNW 8	SSW 6	SE 2	NNW 12	WNW 12	SSW 9	SE 4	WNW 24
25	NW 7	WNW 8	SW 3	WSW 6	NW 11	WNW 14	SW 5	WSW 12
26	W 6	SSW 4	NE 7	SSE 5	W 9	SSW 6	NE 13	SSE 9
27	WNW 12	WSW 6	SW 2	E 4	WNW 18	WSW 10	SW 4	E 7
28	SSW 12	W 5	SSW 4	ENE 4	SSW 18	W 8	SSW 7	ENE 7
29	SSW 8	WSW 5	ENE 6	E 5	SSW 12	WSW 8	ENE 12	E 10
30	SSW 10	SW 2	ENE 13	E 4	SSW 15	SW 3	ENE 24	E 8
31	NE	NE 4	E 2	E	SSW 15	NE 7	E 4	E
Monthly Vector Resultant	WSW 105	WSW 55	W 46	N 70	WSW (247°) 177	WSW (239°) 93	W (273°) 81	N (8°) 131
Daily Vector Mean	WSW 3.5	WSW 1.8	W 1.5	N 2.4	WSW 5.9	WSW 3.0	W 2.6	N 4.4

TABLE 30
LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TORONTO, ONTARIO - 1951

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	NNE 1	SW 4	NW 11	NE 14	NNE 2	SW 7	NW 21	NE 27
2	ESE 5	WSW 8	S 5	NNE 6	ESE 8	WSW 13	S 9	NNE 10
3	E 5	NE 2	WNW 10	WNW 5	E 8	NE 4	WNW 18	WNW 9
4	NW 9	ESE 7	NNW 9	NNW 3	NW 15	ESE 10	NNW 17	WNW 6
5	NE 2	NW 14	ESE 1	E 3	NE 4	NW 23	ESE 1	E 6
6	SW 5	NW 11	NE 8	WSW 3	SW 8	NW 18	NE 15	WSW 6
7	ENE 2	SW 7	ENE 6	WNW 14	ENE 3	SW 12	ENE 10	WNW 26
8	NE 12	SSW 11	WSW 6	SW 5	NE 19	SSW 17	WSW 12	SW 10
9	NE 10	SW 12	W 4	ESE 1	NE 15	SW 19	W 7	ESE 2
10	NW 2	SW 9	ENE 3	E 7	NW 3	SW 14	ENE 6	E 14
11	SW 4	NE 4	NE 1	SSW 11	SW 6	NE 6	NE 2	SSW 21
12	NE 10	NNE 3	SSW 1	S 7	NE 16	NNE 5	SSW 2	S 13
13	NE 11	S 5	ENE 1	SSW 4	NE 18	S 8	ENE 2	SSW 8
14	NW 10	SSW 7	NNE 6	WSW 9	NW 16	SSW 12	ENE 12	WSW 17
15	W 5	SW 6	ENE 8	SW 4	W 8	SW 9	ENE 16	SW 8
16	S 4	W 3	NE 8	WSW 7	S 7	W 4	NE 16	WSW 14
17	ENE 4	ENE 5	NE 2	WSW 9	ENE 6	ENE 8	NE 3	WSW 17
18	SE 4	ENE 6	SSW 4	W 7	SE 5	ENE 10	SSW 8	W 13
19	S 4	WNW 7	SW 4	SW 8	S 7	WNW 12	SW 7	SW 14
20	SSE 11	WNW 11	WSW 2	E 4	SSE 18	WNW 18	WSW 4	E 7
21	WSW 10	SSW 8	WSW 13	S 13	WSW 16	SSW 12	WSW 24	S 25
22	NE 13	WSW 9	WNW 13	SSW 11	NE 20	WSW 14	WNW 26	SSW 20
23	SSW 4	SSW 3	NW 8	WSW 12	SSW 6	SSW 5	NW 14	WSW 23
24	ESE 4	W 5	WSW 3	SSW 5	ESE 6	W 8	WSW 5	SSW 10
25	NW 12	SW 7	WSW 2	WNW 9	NW 19	SW 11	WSW 3	WNW 17
26	NE 10	WSW 9	NE 4	ENE 9	NE 17	WSW 15	NE 8	ENE 17
27	W 8	NE 8	NW 1	WSW 18	W 13	NE 13	NW 2	WSW 33
28	ENE 2	ENE 2	E 3	W 16	ENE 4	ENE 4	E 6	W 30
29	WSW 4	WNW 1	S 6	WSW 6	WSW 6	WNW 1	S 12	WSW 12
30	SSW 5	SSW 6	NNE 2	ENE 6	SSW 8	SSW 10	ENE 4	ENE 10
31	SW 8	SW 8	E 4	ENE 6	SW 13	SW 13	E 8	ENE 10
Monthly Vector Resultant	NNE 34	WSW 100	NW 44	WSW 108	NNE (27°) 58	WSW (244°) 159	NW (317°) 66	WSW (240°) 204
Daily Vector Mean	1.2	3.2	1.4	3.6	1.9	5.1	2.1	6.8

TABLE 31

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TORONTO, ONTARIO - 1952

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds					
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September	
1	N	6	E	9	S	8a	SSE	6	N
2	S	4	ESE	4	WSW	4a	SSW	8	S
3	SSW	6	SSW	8	SSE	2a	W	15	SSW
4	W	3	W	7	S	4a	SW	12	W
5	SW	6	SW	4	W	11	SSW	8	SW
6	SW	12	ENE	5	No Data	WNW	9	9	SW
7	NW	12	E	8	No Data	NE	7	7	NW
8	SSW	8	SE	6	E	10a	NE	6	SSW
9	W	10	NNW	4	E	8b	S	8	W
10	W	13	NNW	7	No Data	SW	4	4	W
11	NW	13	SSW	8	WSW	5b	SW	4	NW
12	SW	5	WSW	6	SW	4	SW	2	SW
13	SE	1	SE	3	SSW	6	WSW	4	SE
14	ENE	4	SSW	8	SSW	4	NE	6	ENE
15	SW	6	SSW	12	SSW	6	WSW	9	SW
16	NE	12	SW	1	W	2	WSW	16	NE
17	NNW	8	SE	4	NNW	8	SW	11	NNW
18	NNW	10	SW	10	ENE	6	ENE	12	NNW
19	W	11	WSW	10	S	2	SW	8	W
20	SW	2	SSE	1	ENE	5	SW	7	SW
21	NE	8	NW	2	SW	10	W	7	NE
22	NE	11	SSW	4	NNW	12	SSW	3	NE
23	ENE	8	WSW	10	NW	8	E	5	ENE
24	S	6	W	6	WSW	5	W	6	S
25	ESE	2	SSE	1	WSW	5	WSW	5	ESE
26	NNW	7	SSW	9	SW	4	NW	8	NNW
27	NE	2	SSW	6	SSW	2	SSW	7	NE
28	ENE	8	WSW	7	ENE	4	SSW	10	ENE
29	NE	9	NNE	7	S	6	WSW	6	NE
30	ENE	11	S	2	NE	10	ENE	1	ENE
31	NNW	7	E	8	NNW	7	ENE	1	NNW
Monthly Vector Resultant	WNW	53	SW	77	S	15	SW	136	NW
Daily Vector Mean	WNW	1.8	SW	2.5	S	0.5	SW	4.5	NW

a Based on three observations.

b Based on two observations.

TABLE 32
LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TORONTO, ONTARIO - 1953

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds		
	June	July	August	June	July	August
1	NNW 6	SW 3	NE 6	NNW 9	SW 5	NE 12
2	NW 12	SSW 11	NE 10	NW 19	SSW 18	NE 18
3	ENE 2	W 8	NE 8	ENE 4	W 14	NE 16
4	SE 3	SSW 3	ENE 8	SE 4	SSW 4	ENE 14
5	SSE 3	ENE 6	NNW 7	SSE 5	ENE 10	NNW 13
6	WSW 9	N 4	NE 7	WSW 15	N 6	NE 14
7	NW 8	SW 11	NE 8	NW 13	SW 18	NE 16
8	NE 10	WSW 5	E 6	NE 16	WSW 8	E 12
9	W 10	NW 8	N 5	W 15	NW 14	N 10
10	NNW 6	NNW 8	NNW 3	NNW 11	NNW 13	NNW 6
11	NNW 5	SW 8	SE 5	NNW 8	SW 13	SE 10
12	NE 6	SSW 10	SE 3	NE 10	SSW 16	SE 6
13	NE 13	WSW 4	SW 2	NE 21	WSW 7	SW 5
14	NE 10	S 4	SSE 7	NE 17	S 6	SSE 13
15	ENE 2	W 1	NW 10	ENE 4	W 2	NW 20
16	NE 10	W 5	W 5	NE 16	W 8	W 10
17	ENE 7	SW 5	NW 11	ENE 11	SW 8	NW 21
18	NW 3	N 1	NW 8	NW 5	N 1	NW 14
19	SSW 7	SSW 4	NW 8	SSW 11	SSW 6	NW 16
20	SW 1	WSW 6	E 6	SW 2	WSW 10	E 12
21	WSW 3	NE 3	E 7	WSW 5	NE 4	E 13
22	WSW 6	NE 9	NE 4	WSW 10	NE 14	NE 8
23	NW 13	W 5	WSW 1	NW 21	W 8	WSW 1
24	NNE 2	NW 11	W 8	NNE 3	NW 18	W 16
25	NE 8	ESE 5	WSW 6	NE 12	ESE 7	WSW 10
26	SW 12	W 6	WSW 7	SW 20	W 9	WSW 12
27	SE 4	WSW 5	WSW 6	SE 6	WSW 8	WSW 11
28	S 2	SSW 2	W 8	S 4	SSW 3	W 16
29	NE 3	SW 6	WSW 7	NE 5	SW 10	WSW 13
30	SSW 6	W 6	W 8	SSW 9	W 10	W 16
31	NW 5	NW 9	SSW 2	NW 11	SSW 11	SSW 3
Monthly Vector Resultant	NNW 51	WSW 103	NNW 54	NNW (341°) 79	WSW (255°) 150	NNW (332°) 104
Daily Vector Mean	1.7	3.3	1.7	2.6	4.8	3.4
						4.0

TABLE 33

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TORONTO, ONTARIO - 1954

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds				
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	SSE 4	WNW 3	WSW 3	WNW 8	SSE 7	WNW 5	WSW 6	WNW 15
2	W 10	NW 13	ENE 2	SSW 11	W 17	NW 21	ENE 4	SSW 20
3	NE 5	ESE 3	SE 2	W 10	NE 8	ESE 4	SE 4	W 20
4	S 6	E 4	SW 2	ESE 2	S 10	E 6	SW 5	ESE 4
5	SW 11	NW 10	NW 7	W 4	SW 18	NW 15	NW 13	W 8
6	NW 12	NW 12	NW 13	NE 6	NW 19	NW 18	NW 24	NE 12
7	NW 11	NW 6	WNW 8	W 5	NW 18	NW 10	WNW 14	W 9
8	SE 2	WNW 6	SSW 6	WNW 9	SE 5	WNW 9	SSW 11	NNW 16
9	E 8	NW 4	ENE 6	ENE 9	E 14	NW 6	ENE 12	ENE 18
10	S 2	ENE 4	WSW 6	ENE 7	S 2	ENE 6	WSW 12	ENE 13
11	E 2	ENE 6	WNW 13	NW 14	E 4	ENE 10	WNW 24	NW 28
12	NE 6	E 3	WNW 9	ESE 1	NE 10	E 5	WNW 16	ESE 2
13	W 5	NW 12	SW 6	WSW 5	W 8	NW 20	SW 12	WSW 10
14	WSW 3	W 8	S 1	ENE 10	WSW 4	W 13	S 2	ENE 18
15	ESE 11	NW 13	S 5	E 21	ESE 18	NW 21	S 9	E 40
16	E 12	NNW 8	W 7	NE 7	E 19	NNW 12	W 13	NE 13
17	ESE 8	SSE 2	WNW 4	NE 5	ESE 13	SSE 4	WNW 8	NE 9
18	ESE 7	SW 6	WNE 2	E 14	ESE 12	SW 9	NNE 5	E 26
19	SW 4	NNW 8	WSW 3	WSW 6	SW 6	NNW 12	WSW 6	WSW 10
20	SW 7	S 3	WSW 4	WSW 13	SW 11	S 5	WSW 8	WSW 25
21	WNW 2	N 8	NE 4	SW 8	WNW 4	N 13	NE 8	SW 14
22	WSW 7	NNW 9	NE 8	WNW 22	WSW 11	NNW 15	NE 16	WNW 36
23	NW 9	NW 13	ENE 7	W 9	NW 15	NW 20	ENE 13	W 18
24	W 7	NW 10	N 1	NW 1	W 11	NW 16	N 2	NW 2
25	SW 7	NNE 4	WSW 4	WSW 8	SW 11	NNE 6	WSW 8	WSW 15
26	ESE 1	WSW 2	NE 7	WSW 3	ESE 2	WSW 4	NE 13	WSW 6
27	NW 18	SSW 1	ESE 2	SSW 11	NW 28	SSW 2	ESE 5	SSW 20
28	NW 15	SW 3	NE 3	WSW 7	NW 24	SW 5	NE 6	WSW 13
29	NNW 5	ENE 6	ENE 9	NE 14	NNW 8	ENE 9	ENE 18	NE 26
30	E 6	W 7	NNE 8	S 4	E 10	W 11	NNE 15	S 8
31	NNW 1	NNW 1	NNW 4	NNW 4	NNW 1	NNW 1	NNW 8	NNW 15
Monthly Vector Resultant	WNW 40	NW 126	NW 53	WNW 42	WNW (290°) 62	NW (319°) 198	NW (317°) 93	WNW (293°) 74
Daily Vector Mean	1.3	4.1	1.7	1.4	2.1	6.1	3.0	2.5

TABLE 34

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TORONTO, ONTARIO - 1955

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	N 12	WSW 3	W 5	WSW 5	N 19	WSW 5	W 9	WSW 10
2	W 3	WSW 6	NE 4	SW 1	W 4	WSW 10	NE 7	SW 2
3	SSE 2	NE 1	SSW 3	NE 4	SSE 5	NE 2	SSW 6	NE 8
4	W 5	SW 7	SW 5	SSW 4	W 8	SW 11	SW 10	SSW 8
5	WSW 4	WSW 5	W 7	NW 4	WSW 7	WSW 8	W 13	NW 8
6	E 4	SE 1	ESE 5	WSW 7	E 7	SE 2	ESE 10	WSW 13
7	E 9	ESE 5	NNW 10	NW 10	E 14	ESE 8	NNW 18	NW 20
8	E 16	E 8	NE 8	NE 2	E 26	E 13	NE 16	E 4
9	E 10	SSE 4	E 10	E 11	E 16	SSE 6	E 18	E 20
10	S 2	N 7	S 10	SSW 14	S 5	N 11	S 19	SSW 26
11	E 8	NE 4	NW 7	SE 1	E 13	NE 6	NW 14	SE 1
12	SSE 2	ENE 8	NNE 10	NW 8	SSE 2	ENE 13	NNE 18	NW 14
13	NNW 10	ENE 5	NE 20	ENE 10	NNW 17	ENE 8	NE 38	ENE 18
14	NNW 5	SSW 4	SSE 18	S 10	NNW 8	SSW 7	SSE 33	S 20
15	NW 7	SSE 1	SSW 11	W 2	NW 10	SSE 2	SSW 20	W 4
16	NNW 8	W 6	E 2	NE 9	NNW 13	W 9	E 4	NE 18
17	WSW 7	S 3	E 6	SW 2	WSW 10	S 5	E 12	SW 3
18	E 4	NNW 7	ENE 5	ESE 1	E 7	NNW 11	ENE 9	ESE 2
19	NNE 4	ENE 5	W 5	SSW 7	NNE 6	ENE 8	W 10	SSW 13
20	W 6	SSW 2	SW 6	NW 12	W 9	SSW 4	SW 10	NW 23
21	WSW 8	SSW 5	SSW 10	NNW 2	WSW 12	SSW 8	SSW 19	NNW 4
22	W 8	SW 5	SW 7	ENE 14	W 13	SW 8	SW 13	ENE 28
23	W 10	NNW 10	NNW 10	E 17	W 16	NNW 16	NNW 18	E 32
24	NW 6	NNE 6	ENE 6	NW 4	NW 9	NNE 9	ENE 12	NW 8
25	NNW 7	S 4	SSE 8	NW 11	NNW 11	S 6	SSE 15	NW 22
26	NNW 7	SSW 8	WSW 6	NE 3	NNW 10	SSW 13	WSW 12	NE 5
27	SW 7	ESE 2	SW 3	SSE 12	SW 11	ESE 4	SW 5	SSE 22
28	SSW 8	E 8	E 13	NNW 10	SSW 13	E 14	E 25	NNW 18
29	SSW 8	ENE 8	E 12	ENE 5	SSW 13	ENE 12	E 24	ENE 8
30	SW 9	ESE 6	SSW 7	SW 7	SW 14	ESE 10	SSW 14	SW 14
31	S 8	S 8	WSW 13	SW 13	S 13	WSW 25	WSW 25	NNE (22°) 25
Monthly Vector Resultant	W 70	S 23	SE 34	NNW 7	W (276°) 68	SSE (160°) 41	SE (142°) 66	NNE (22°) 25
Daily Vector Mean	W 2.3	S 0.8	SE 1.1	NNW 0.2	W 2.3	SSE 1.3	SE 2.1	NNE 0.8

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TORONTO, ONTARIO

TABLE 37

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1958						Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1959					
	June	July	August	September	June	July		June	July	August	September	June	July
1	NW	SSW	NW	W	ENE	SSW	1	W	ENE	NW	WNW	W	ENE
2	N	SSW	SE	SSE	SE	SSW	2	ENE	NW	SE	SE	ENE	NW
3	NE	SSW	SW	ENE	SE	SSW	3	WSW	SW	ESE	W	WSW	SE
4	ENE	NE	NW	SW	NW	SSW	4	SSW	SSW	ENE	WSW	SSW	ENE
5	WNW	NE	WSW	NNE	WSW	SSW	5	SW	SSW	N	SSE	SSW	ENE
6	NNW	ENE	SSW	S	SSW	SSW	6	NW	WNW	E	ENE	SSW	ENE
7	SSW	NE	SSW	W	SSW	SSW	7	E	SW	E	SSW	SSW	ENE
8	S	WNW	WNW	NW	WNW	SSW	8	SSW	SSE	ENE	SSW	SSW	ENE
9	ENE	SSE	SW	SSW	SW	SSW	9	WSW	W	N	SE	SE	SSW
10	NE	ESE	SW	W	SW	SSW	10	W	S	NW	NW	NW	SSW
11	SSW	SE	N	NW	N	SSW	11	E	SW	NNW	NNW	NNW	SSW
12	SSW	SE	SSE	SSW	SSW	SSW	12	SW	S	SSW	NNW	NNW	SSW
13	N	ENE	SSW	S	SSW	SSW	13	NW	ENE	WSW	NW	NW	SSW
14	W	NE	SW	SSW	SW	SSW	14	NW	ENE	SSW	NE	NE	SSW
15	W	S	WSW	SSW	WSW	SSW	15	NW	ENE	SSW	NE	NE	SSW
16	W	W	WNW	SSW	WNW	SSW	16	N	ENE	SSW	N	N	SSW
17	WSW	S	W	NE	W	SSW	17	E	SE	SSW	WNW	WNW	SSW
18	ENE	SSE	WNW	NNW	WNW	SSW	18	NW	SSW	NW	NNW	NNW	SSW
19	E	W	S	NE	S	SSW	19	NW	WNW	ENE	SSW	SSW	SSW
20	E	NW	SSW	NE	SSW	SSW	20	WNW	ENE	SSW	ESE	ESE	SSW
21	WNW	NE	SW	NE	SW	SSW	21	WNW	SSE	SSW	SSW	SSW	SSW
22	SW	NE	W	WSW	W	SSW	22	NNW	SSW	E	SSE	SSE	SSW
23	ESE	SW	W	SSW	SSW	SSW	23	WSW	ESE	ENE	SSW	SSW	SSW
24	ENE	SSE	NE	ESE	SSW	SSW	24	SSE	SSW	ENE	NNW	NNW	SSW
25	ENE	SSW	WSW	SW	SSW	SSW	25	ENE	NNW	SSW	ENE	ENE	SSW
26	SW	S	W	W	SSW	SSW	26	SE	SSW	SSW	E	E	SSW
27	W	NNE	E	W	SSW	SSW	27	E	SSW	SSW	SSW	SSW	SSW
28	SW	SSE	NE	NW	SSW	SSW	28	SSW	SSW	SSW	SSW	SSW	SSW
29	S	SSW	ESE	SSE	SSW	SSW	29	W	ENE	E	SSW	SSW	SSW
30	SSW	SW	S	SSE	SSW	SSW	30	NNW	SSE	E	SSW	SSW	SSW
31	W	W	S	SSE	SSW	SSW	31	W	W	SSE	NE	NE	SSW
Monthly Vector Resultant	WSW	SW	SW	WSW	WSW	WSW	Monthly Vector Resultant	WNW	S	SSW	W	W	SSW
Daily Vector Mean	57	34	88	64	57	64	Daily Vector Mean	106	34	39	49	106	34
	1.9	1.1	2.8	2.1	1.9	2.1		3.6	1.1	1.3	1.7	3.6	1.1

TABLE 38

TABLE 39

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TRENTON, ONTARIO - 1948

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	WNW 8	W 8	WSW 8	WSW 2	WNW 12	W 13	WSW 16	WSW 5
2	NE 2	W 9	SW 6	SW 3	NE 3	W 14	SW 12	SW 6
3	W 4	W 7	WSW 2	SSW 2	W 6	W 11	WSW 5	SSW 3
4	WSW 7	WSW 4	N 4	SE 1	WSW 12	WSW 7	N 8	SE 2
5	N 16	W 8	NE 13	ENE 2	N 25	W 13	NE 25	ENE 3
6	W 6	NNW 6	NNW 6	S 4	W 10	NNW 9	NNW 12	S 7
7	E 4	N 6	NW 8	SSE 5	E 7	N 10	NW 16	SSE 10
8	ENE 8	W 6	W 6	SW 4	ENE 13	W 10	W 6	SW 9
9	N 8	SW 4	NW 4	NNW 4	N 14	SW 6	NW 8	NNW 6
10	WNW 3	WSW 8	WSW 5	WNW 5	WNW 5	WSW 12	WSW 9	WNW 9
11	WSW 6	SW 8	SE 4	SW 5	WSW 10	SW 13	SE 8	SW 10
12	WSW 6	SW 4	SW 7	SW 7	WSW 10	SW 6	SW 14	SW 13
13	W 9	NNE 8	W 8	W 11	W 14	NNE 13	W 14	W 20
14	WSW 7	NE 10	NW 11	NNE 7	WSW 11	NE 16	NW 21	NNE 14
15	W 6	E 2	W 4	NE 4	W 10	E 2	W 8	NE 8
16	W 5	S 3	SW 2	E 3	W 8	S 5	SW 5	E 6
17	W 4	SW 11	ESE 4	SW 3	W 6	SW 18	ESE 8	SW 14
18	WNW 6	W 11	S 8	SW 16	WNW 10	W 18	S 15	SW 31
19	W 6	WNW 4	WSW 3	NE 4	W 10	WNW 9	WSW 6	NE 8
20	WSW 6	WSW 5	WNW 2	WNW 7	WSW 10	WSW 8	WNW 4	WNW 14
21	WSW 5	WSW 2	W 2	NW 3	WSW 8	WSW 4	W 3	NW 6
22	E 3	NE 9	W 4	NNW 6	E 5	NE 14	W 7	NNW 12
23	SE 7	NW 6	SW 4	N 10	SE 12	NW 10	SW 8	N 19
24	WSW 11	NNW 14	SW 8	NNE 4	WSW 18	WNW 23	SW 14	NNE 7
25	NNW 10	SW 10	SW 14	NE 3	WNW 17	SW 17	SW 27	NE 6
26	WSW 3	SW 10	SW 7	SW 2	WSW 5	SW 17	SW 12	SW 4
27	NE 1	W 6	SW 3	WNW 2	NE 2	W 10	SW 5	WNW 4
28	SW 7	W 7	SSW 4	W 3	SW 11	W 12	SSW 7	W 5
29	WSW 11	WSW 8	WNW 14	WSW 2	WSW 18	WSW 12	WNW 26	WSW 3
30	W 12	SSW 7	NNW 7	SE 2	W 19	SSW 11	NNW 13	SE 3
31	WNW 11	N 13	N 13		WNW 18	NNW 18	N 24	
Monthly Vector Resultant	W 117	W 138	W 99	WSW 50	W (272°) 190	W (268°) 219	W (275°) 196	WSW (252°) 102
Daily Vector Mean	3.9	4.4	3.2	1.6	6.3	7.1	6.3	3.4

TABLE 40

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TRENTON, ONTARIO - 1949

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	NNE 1	SW 5	W 4	WSW 12	NNE 2	SW 8	W 8	WSW 24
2	SE 1	SW 13	SSE 2	SW 9	SE 2	SW 21	SSE 4	SW 18
3	SW 5	W 6	SSW 2	W 2	SW 8	W 9	SSW 4	W 5
4	SW 8	WSW 8	W 4	SW 8	SW 12	WSW 12	W 8	SW 15
5	WNW 11	WNW 3	W 7	WSW 15	WNW 18	WNW 5	W 14	WSW 29
6	WSW 12	N 8	W 10	NW 13	WSW 19	N 14	W 18	NW 25
7	NW 15	NNE 5	WSW 7	NNE 8	NW 24	NNE 8	WSW 13	NNE 15
8	NW 13	NE 8	SW 10	N 11	NW 21	NE 12	SW 20	N 21
9	W 5	SSW 6	WSW 8	NW 10	W 8	SSW 10	WSW 16	NW 19
10	SW 4	WNW 6	SW 8	W 5	SW 7	WNW 10	SW 16	W 8
11	SW 10	SSW 2	WSW 6	E 3	SW 15	SSW 4	WSW 12	E 5
12	SW 10	NNE 2	S 8	SSE 11	SW 16	NNE 3	S 15	SSE 21
13	SSW 7	WNW 8	ENE 6	SE 14	SSW 11	WNW 12	ENE 12	SE 26
14	SSW 9	N 2	NNW 2	WSW 8	SSW 14	N 2	NNW 4	WSW 15
15	S 16	WSW 4	ENE 9	W 4	S 26	WSW 7	ENE 16	W 7
16	SSE 10	SW 6	ENE 8	SW 14	SSE 16	SW 9	ENE 13	SW 23
17	SSE 10	S 4	W 1	SW 8	SSE 17	S 6	W 2	SW 13
18	SSE 9	S 2	NW 3	SW 9	SSE 14	S 3	NW 5	SW 15
19	NNE 2	SW 11	N 16	WSW 13	NNE 4	SW 18	N 31	WSW 25
20	WSW 2	WNW 5	NW 15	WNW 10	WSW 4	WNW 8	NW 28	WNW 20
21	SW 14	WSW 3	WSW 9	SSW 2	SW 22	WSW 4	WSW 18	SSW 4
22	NW 14	WSW 11	WSW 4	SW 6	NW 22	WSW 18	WSW 8	SW 12
23	W 7	WNW 10	SW 8	SW 2	W 11	WNW 16	SW 15	SW 3
24	SW 8	WSW 8	N 3	NW 14	SW 13	WSW 13	N 6	NW 28
25	S 3	NW 2	WSW 4	WSW 4	S 5	NW 4	WSW 8	WSW 8
26	SW 15	SSW 4	SW 12	SE 6	SW 24	SSW 7	SW 24	SE 11
27	NW 8	SW 11	SW 14	S 19	NW 13	SW 18	SW 26	S 36
28	ENE 2	WSW 11	WSW 9	W 6	ENE 3	WSW 18	WSW 18	W 12
29	E 4	SW 11	NW 10	NNW 7	E 6	SW 18	NW 18	NNW 14
30	SW 2	WNW 5	WSW 8	WSW 9	SW 3	WNW 7	WSW 15	WSW 18
31		NW 16	SW 7			NW 26	SW 14	
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 136	W 134	WSW 121	WSW 139	SW (235°) 216	WSW (257°) 225	WSW (257°) 236	WSW (248°) 262
Daily Vector Mean	SW 4.5	W 4.3	WSW 3.9	WSW 4.6	SW 7.2	WSW 7.3	WSW 7.6	WSW 8.7

TABLE 4.1

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TRENTON, ONTARIO - 1950

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	WSW 7	SW 10	ENE 11	WNW 3	WSW 11	SW 16	ENE 21	WNW 5
2	SW 8	SSW 7	SW 11	N 11	SW 12	SSW 11	SW 7	N 21
3	WSW 14	WSW 8	WSW 14	SW 2	WSW 23	WSW 13	WSW 26	SW 3
4	W 17	SW 7	WSW 10	WNW 10	W 27	SW 11	WSW 18	WNW 20
5	SW 6	W 11	NNW 8	NNW 10	SW 10	W 18	NNW 16	NNW 18
6	SW 14	WSW 8	NNE 4	WSW 6	SW 22	WSW 12	NNE 8	WSW 12
7	SW 13	W 10	SW 3	WSW 6	SW 21	W 16	SW 6	WSW 12
8	SW 10	WSW 6	W 6	W 3	SW 16	WSW 10	SW 11	W 5
9	SW 10	WSW 6	W 7	ENE 3	SW 17	WSW 10	W 14	ENE 5
10	WSW 13	SSW 3	W 10	NE 10	WSW 20	SSW 5	W 18	NE 19
11	NW 20	SE 6	N 8	NE 16	NW 32	SE 9	N 16	NE 30
12	WSW 8	SW 11	WNW 3	NE 15	WSW 12	SW 18	WNW 6	NE 28
13	SW 9	WSW 10	NW 7	E 14	SW 15	WSW 16	NW 12	E 26
14	SSE 5	WSW 14	WSW 7	SSW 6	SSE 8	WSW 22	WSW 13	SSW 10
15	SSW 4	S 3	SW 3	W 10	SSW 7	S 4	SW 6	W 20
16	S 7	S 8	SW 8	NW 12	S 12	S 12	SW 15	SW 22
17	WNW 14	SW 10	WSW 4	W 5	WNW 22	SW 16	WSW 7	W 9
18	WSW 10	WNW 14	N 10	SW 4	WSW 16	WNW 22	N 19	SW 8
19	SW 8	W 8	SSW 4	N 5	SW 13	W 13	SSW 8	N 9
20	SW 10	NNW 4	NW 14	0	SW 15	NNW 6	NW 26	0
21	WNW 12	W 8	WSW 7	NE 4	WNW 19	W 12	WSW 13	NE 7
22	S 3	SW 7	SW 6	W 3	S 5	SW 12	SW 12	W 5
23	SW 6	S 5	SW 7	NW 17	SW 10	S 7	SW 14	NW 31
24	WNW 6	S 11	SW 4	NW 15	WNW 10	S 18	SW 8	NW 28
25	W 7	WSW 12	SSW 12	W 1	W 11	WSW 20	SSW 22	W 2
26	WSW 8	WSW 8	N 5	WSW 1	WSW 13	WSW 13	N 10	WSW 2
27	WSW 10	SW 8	SSW 2	NE 2	WSW 15	SW 13	SSW 4	NE 4
28	WSW 10	SW 6	SW 9	S 2	WSW 16	SW 10	SW 18	S 4
29	SW 12	WSW 12	ENE 12	ESE 1	SW 18	WSW 18	ENE 22	ESE 2
30	SSW 6	WSW 10	ENE 10	SW 4	SSW 10	WSW 16	ENE 18	SW 8
31	E 2	W 2	W 3		E 2	W 2	W 6	
Monthly Vector Resultant	WSW 252	WSW 210	W 90	NNW 86	WSW (244°) 385	WSW (238°) 322	W (266°) 172	NW (325°) 132
Daily Vector Mean	WSW 8.4	WSW 6.8	W 2.9	NNW 2.9	WSW 12.8	WSW 10.4	W 5.3	NW 4.4

TABLE 42
LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TRENTON, ONTARIO - 1951

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	WSW 4	SW 4	NNW 10	NE 19	WSW 7	SW 6	NNW 18	NE 36
2	NE 9	WSW 11	WSW 4	NE 18	NE 14	WSW 17	WSW 7	NE 18
3	SW 1	SW 5	WNW 10	WNW 4	SW 1	SW 8	WNW 18	WNW 7
4	NW 10	ENE 3	N 10	W 8	NW 17	ENE 5	N 20	W 14
5	N 5	NNW 13	NW 2	ENE 2	N 8	NNW 20	NW 4	ENE 4
6	SW 4	NW 10	S 2	SW 4	SW 7	NW 16	S 5	SW 7
7	NNW 2	W 9	E 6	NNE 2	NNW 2	W 15	E 10	NNE 4
8	ENE 2	SW 9	SW 5	SW 8	ENE 4	SW 15	SW 9	SW 14
9	E 4	SSW 10	W 5	SW 3	E 7	SSW 16	W 10	SW 6
10	SE 13	SW 11	SW 3	SE 7	SE 21	SW 18	SW 6	SE 13
11	SSE 7	NNE 6	WSW 2	SSW 14	SSE 11	NNE 10	WSW 4	SSW 28
12	E 3	N 6	NW 2	SW 7	E 5	N 10	NW 4	SW 13
13	SE 10	WSW 8	SSW 2	WSW 6	SE 17	WSW 12	SSW 4	WSW 15
14	SE 6	SW 8	N 6	SSW 7	SE 10	SW 13	N 12	SSW 10
15	N 4	SW 6	NNE 4	WSW 7	N 6	SW 10	NNE 7	WSW 13
16	SW 6	SW 5	NE 14	WSW 7	SW 9	SW 8	NE 28	WSW 13
17	SW 4	N 6	NE 7	SW 9	SW 6	N 10	NE 13	SW 17
18	SW 4	ENE 4	NW 3	WSW 8	SW 7	ENE 7	NW 5	WSW 14
19	SW 5	W 12	SW 3	SW 4	SW 7	W 18	SW 6	SW 8
20	S 8	W 12	SW 4	SE 1	S 13	W 20	SW 8	SE 1
21	WSW 14	SSW 6	SW 12	SW 13	WSW 22	SSW 10	SW 22	SW 24
22	ENE 6	WSW 14	WNW 17	SSW 10	ENE 9	WSW 22	WNW 32	SSW 20
23	W 7	SW 4	WSW 4	W 6	W 11	SW 6	WSW 7	W 11
24	S 4	W 5	W 3	SSW 4	S 6	W 8	W 5	SSW 8
25	NNW 12	SW 7	WSW 5	W 8	NNW 19	SW 11	WSW 10	W 16
26	E 4	SW 9	WSW 3	NE 4	E 7	SW 14	WSW 6	NE 8
27	W 6	N 5	WSW 3	SW 16	W 9	N 9	WSW 6	SW 31
28	WSW 4	W 0	SW 4	WSW 14	WSW 6	0	SW 7	WSW 26
29	SW 9	WSW 2	SW 4	WNW 7	SW 14	WSW 4	SW 8	WNW 13
30	SW 8	SSW 5	WSW 2	NE 2	SW 13	SSW 8	WSW 3	NE 3
31	SW 7	SW 7	NE 5	SW 2	SW 11	NE 9	NE 9	SW 3
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 48	WSW 142	WNW 68	SW 120	SW (216°) 101	WSW (253°) 224	WNW (292°) 126	SW (235°) 224
Daily Vector Mean	SW 1.6	WSW 4.6	WNW 2.2	SW 4.0	SW 3.4	WSW 7.2	WNW 4.1	SW 7.5

TABLE 43

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TRENTON, ONTARIO - 1952

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	NW	SSE	SSW	4	NW	8	SSW	8
2	W	SW	SW	1	W	12	SW	15
3	SSW	SW	WSW	10	SSW	4	WSW	11
4	WNW	WSW	SE	11	WNW	7	SE	10
5	SW	WSW	SW	6	SW	6	SW	19
6	SW	W	WSW	7	SW	16	WSW	12
7	NW	SW	SW	10	NW	14	SW	6
8	SW	SSE	ENE	0	SW	4	ENE	8
9	SW	SW	SE	8	SW	20	SE	24
10	WSW	NNW	S	5	WSW	19	S	13
11	NW	SW	SW	4	NW	17	SW	18
12	WNW	WSW	SW	4	WNW	4	SW	9
13	W	S	WNW	6	W	5	NNW	24
14	S	WSW	SW	5	S	2	SW	10
15	NW	WSW	SSW	5	NW	12	SSW	7
16	ENE	WSW	SW	6	ENE	7	SW	10
17	WNW	S	NNW	7	WNW	12	NNW	18
18	WSW	SW	NW	2	WSW	16	NW	3
19	WSW	WNW	SW	10	WSW	18	SW	10
20	SW	W	SE	4	SW	9	SE	8
21	SE	SW	SW	8	SE	4	SW	26
22	ESE	WSW	NNW	3	ESE	6	NNW	27
23	SE	W	NW	5	SE	7	NW	20
24	SW	NW	WNW	8	SW	6	WNW	15
25	WNW	W	SW	5	WNW	10	W	14
26	WSW	SW	SW	9	WSW	10	SW	18
27	NNE	SW	SW	4	NNE	4	SW	7
28	NE	SW	SW	11	NE	5	SW	6
29	ENE	NNW	SSW	6	ENE	10	SSW	18
30	NE	SW	NE	4	NE	15	NE	20
31	WNW	WNW	SE	4	WNW	16	SE	19
Monthly Vector Resultant	W	WSW	SW	114	W	(266°) 143	WSW (250°) 299	SW (232°) 200
Daily Vector Mean	W	WSW	SW	3.8	W	4.8	WSW	6.5
	3.0	6.0	3.4	7.4		9.6		7.4

TABLE 45

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT MAIN DUCK ISLAND, ONTARIO - 1954

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds				Daily Mean Over-Water Winds			
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September
1	S 15	S 6	WNW 16	W 14	S 15	S 6	WNW 16	W 14
2	SW 19	WSW 17	SSW 6	SSW 16	SW 19	WSW 17	SSW 6	SSW 16
3	WNW 4	NW 10	SSE 16	WSW 19	WNW 4	NW 10	SSE 16	WSW 19
4	SSE 6	WSW 4	WSW 9	NNW 5	SSE 6	WSW 4	WSW 9	NNW 5
5	SW 18	WSW 6	NW 12	SW 12	SW 18	WSW 6	NW 12	SW 12
6	WSW 19	WSW 12	NW 8	NE 9	WSW 19	WSW 12	NW 8	NE 9
7	WSW 20	WNW 13	WNW 14	SSW 10	WSW 20	WNW 13	WNW 14	SSW 10
8	NNW 8	WNW 11	ENE 4	NNW 12	NNW 8	WNW 11	ENE 4	NNW 12
9	ENE 1	W 7	ENE 4	NNE 11	ENE 1	W 7	ENE 4	NNE 11
10	SSE 10	SSE 4	S 10	SE 28	SSE 10	SSE 4	S 10	SE 28
11	N 9	ENE 1	W 26	NNW 15	N 9	ENE 1	W 26	NNW 15
12	ESE 6	ESE 8	W 22	NW 12	ESE 6	ESE 8	W 22	NW 12
13	SW 12	SW 19	WNW 9	SSW 16	SW 12	SW 19	WNW 9	SSW 16
14	SSW 6	WSW 10	SW 2	NNE 18	SSW 6	WSW 10	SW 2	NNE 18
15	NE 14	NNW 18	SW 12	ESE 10	NE 14	NNW 18	SW 12	ESE 10
16	SE 12	NNW 11	SW 8	ESE 10	SE 12	NNW 11	SW 8	ESE 10
17	SE 10	S 6	WNW 18	N 10	SE 10	S 6	WNW 18	N 10
18	SSE 6	S 13	WNW 6	NE 7	SSE 6	S 13	WNW 6	NE 7
19	S 10	W 9	SW 14	S 14	S 10	W 9	SW 14	S 14
20	S 14	SE 5	W 7	NNW 10	S 14	SE 5	W 7	NNW 10
21	SW 15	N 9	N 4	S 15	SW 15	N 9	N 4	S 15
22	SSW 15	NW 9	S 3	W 34	SSW 15	NW 9	S 3	W 34
23	W 7	W 13	SSE 8	W 23	W 7	W 13	SSE 8	W 23
24	W 10	NNW 6	SW 16	WNW 6	W 10	NNW 6	SW 16	WNW 6
25	SW 14	S 2	SW 12	SSW 22	SW 14	S 2	SW 12	SSW 22
26	S 2	SW 8	S 20	WSW 12	S 2	SW 8	S 20	WSW 12
27	WNW 21	WSW 6	SSE 4	SW 10	WNW 21	WSW 6	SSE 4	SW 10
28	N 20	SW 5	NNW 4	SW 14	N 20	SW 5	NNW 4	SW 14
29	N 5	S 9	ENE 8	SE 7	N 5	S 9	ENE 8	SE 7
30	ESE 3	WSW 14	NE 16	S 17	ESE 3	WSW 14	NE 16	S 17
31	SW 14	SW 6	E 12	SW 13	SW 14	SW 6	E 12	SW 13
Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 148	WSW 160	WSW 145	SW 138	SW 141	WSW 160	WSW 145	SW 138
Daily Vector Mean	SW 4.9	WSW 5.2	WSW 4.7	SW 4.6	SW 4.7	WSW 5.2	WSW 4.7	SW 4.6

TABLE 46

LAKE ONTARIO - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT TRENTON, ONTARIO - 1955

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds			Daily Mean Over-Water Winds		
	June	July	August	September	June	July
1	N	SW	SW	SW	N	SW
2	N	WSW	W	SW	N	W
3	WSW	W	SW	SW	WSW	SW
4	NW	WSW	SW	SW	NW	SW
5	NW	SSW	SW	WSW	NW	SSW
6	SW	WSW	NE	WSW	SW	NE
7	NE	WSW	WNW	NW	NE	WNW
8	ENE	SSW	NNE	NNW	ENE	NNE
9	SE	SW	ESE	ESE	SE	ESE
10	SW	NW	SSE	SSW	SW	SSE
11	SE	N	WNW	NW	SE	N
12	SW	NE	NE	NW	SW	NE
13	W	SSW	NE	E	W	SSW
14	W	SW	SSE	SSE	W	SSW
15	WNW	SSE	WSW	NNW	WNW	SSW
16	SW	SW	SW	ENE	SW	SW
17	W	WSW	SW	SW	W	SW
18	WSW	WNW	SW	SSW	WSW	SW
19	SW	NNW	WNW	SW	SW	WNW
20	WSW	SW	SW	NW	WSW	SW
21	SW	WSW	WSW	NW	SW	WSW
22	WSW	SW	WSW	ENE	WSW	WSW
23	WSW	WSW	N	ESE	WSW	N
24	W	NE	WNW	NNE	W	WNW
25	W	SW	SW	NW	W	SW
26	NW	SW	SW	W	NW	SW
27	W	NE	SSE	SE	W	SSE
28	WSW	NE	E	W	WSW	E
29	SW	SE	E	SE	SW	E
30	SW	SSW	SSW	SSW	SW	SSW
31	SW	SW	SW	SW	SW	SW
Monthly Vector Resultant	W 140	WSW 112	SW 78	WSW 67	W (265°) 224	WSW (246°) 189
Daily Vector Mean	4.7	3.6	2.5	2.2	7.5	6.1
					SW	SW
					4.8	3.7

LAKE SUPERIOR - VECTOR WIND VELOCITIES AT DULUTH, MINNESOTA

TABLE 52

TABLE 51

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1954				Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1955			
	June	July	August	September		June	July	August	September
1	NNW 14	NW 10	W 10	SW 8	1	E 12	W 10	E 7	W 8
2	ENE 10	ENE 15	WNW 9	E 16	2	SE 12	NNW 1	ESE 8	S 12
3	NE 8	E 14	WNW 13	NE 3	3	ESE 11	SW 8	SE 9	SSW 14
4	SE 3	WNW 9	NW 11	NE 5	4	S 7	E 2	WNW 5	WNW 12
5	ESE 4	NW 4	NW 14	WNW 4	5	SE 7	ESE 4	SE 8	W 6
6	E 16	E 4	ENE 6	E 6	6	SSE 6	ESE 6	WNW 5	NW 12
7	ESE 11	E 7	ESE 2	WNW 16	7	NW 10	ESE 9	ENE 5	ENE 4
8	SSW 19	ENE 5	NW 6	ENE 5	8	NW 5	WSW 12	SSE 8	E 14
9	WSW 11	ENE 11	NNW 2	E 9	9	E 6	WNW 13	SSW 10	E 7
10	NNE 10	E 18	N 11	NNW 8	10	ENE 9	ENE 10	WNW 13	NNW 19
11	E 25	E 12	N 4	ENE 9	11	ENE 10	ENE 17	E 1	NNW 11
12	W 6	NNW 11	SSW 6	ENE 19	12	NNE 11	ESE 14	S 8	SSE 5
13	S 5	WSW 5	SSW 10	ENE 25	13	NW 10	SSW 11	SE 7	SSE 14
14	ESE 11	NW 12	W 7	ENE 24	14	NE 2	NNW 12	SE 6	NW 6
15	S 8	NW 5	WSW 8	ENE 18	15	SW 6	N 16	WNW 8	E 18
16	S 2	S 4	NNE 6	ESE 15	16	SW 8	NE 7	ESE 6	SSW 6
17	SW 6 ^a	WSW 9	SE 6	NE 4	17	SE 10	NNW 2	SE 3	ESE 15
18	ENE 11	NNW 7	WSW 6	E 11	18	SSE 12	ENE 9	SW 6	SSE 8
19	ENE 11	WSW 10	NW 8	W 19	19	SW 9	SE 8	SW 12	NNW 14
20	NNW 8	NE 8	E 7	W 6	20	W 13	S 9	SSW 2	NE 11
21	SSE 4	E 14	E 13	NW 19	21	NNW 17	S 9	NNW 10	E 20
22	NNW 11	ESE 12	SE 12	NW 8	22	NW 16	W 6	WNW 8	SSW 4
23	SSE 8	NW 7	WSW 10	SE 8	23	NNW 14	NNW 13	ESE 4	WNW 10
24	W 6	SW 2	SW 13	WSW 4	24	ENE 4	NNW 4	S 8	NNW 14
25	NNE 5	SSW 5	NE 9	W 13	25	NNW 3	SSW 14	ENE 4	NE 4
26	NNW 12	SSW 8	E 14	NNW 9	26	ENE 3	ESE 6	E 14	SE 8
27	ENE 11	SW 5	ESE 10	WSW 12	27	SW 8	ENE 18	ENE 19	WSW 8
28	ESE 14	E 10	NNW 3	E 6	28	S 10	E 18	E 6	S 1
29	SW 11	WSW 11	NW 10	E 6	29	SSW 13	SE 8	NE 2	WSW 14
30	NNW 19	NNW 2	ENE 6	NNW 14	30	SE 9	SE 7	NNW 18	NNW 10
31	NNW 4	NNW 8	SW 4		31	SSE 5	SSE 5	NW 16	
Monthly Vector Resultant	ESE 42	NE 23	NNW 46	NE 96	Monthly Vector Resultant	SW 33	NNW 36	SSE 29	WSW 42
Daily Vector Mean	ESE 1.4	NE 0.7	NNW 1.5	NE 3.2	Daily Vector Mean	SW 1.1	NNW 1.8	SSE 0.9	WSW 1.4

^aBased on three observations.

LAKE SUPERIOR - VECTOR LAND WIND VELOCITIES AT DULUTH, MINNESOTA

TABLE 53

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1956								Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1957							
	June	July	August	September	June	July	August	September									
1	NW	11	NNW	7	ENE	13	W	14	1	NW	14	SE	5	SSE	5	ESE	7
2	SSW	8	NW	10	E	13	S	8	2	SSE	5	WSW	9	W	8	ESE	5
3	E	12	ENE	13	E	16	W	7	3	NNW	8	W	10	NNW	14	N	12
4	ENE	11	E	12	E	7	NW	8	4	NNE	5	W	9	NNW	16	NE	7
5	E	14	SW	6	N	3	NW	7	5	E	14	NNW	15	W	5	SW	5
6	ESE	14	N	6	W	10	NNW	15	6	ESE	9	W	12	SSW	9	NNW	3
7	W	12	ENE	16	WSW	5	W	13	7	E	7	E	10	SSW	15	NW	2
8	W	9	NE	8	SW	7	NE	7	8	ESE	12	NNW	16	SW	6	SSW	9
9	NNW	8	NW	13	NW	14	SE	10	9	SE	10	NW	12	N	6	SSW	3
10	SSE	3	NNW	12	W	12	ESE	6	10	SW	5	SE	9	WSW	2	SW	13
11	S	6	WSW	5	NW	9	ESE	2	11	NNW	13	SE	7	E	9	SW	10
12	SSW	12	E	14	S	9	NW	5	12	ESE	8	ENE	7	E	18	W	7
13	SW	6	NNW	2	W	14	NNW	9	13	SSE	6	NW	8	SW	5	NNW	12
14	SW	9	SW	9	W	14	NNW	9	14	SSE	7	ENE	20	WSW	5	SW	9
15	ENE	16	ESE	10	WSW	5	ESE	7	15	WSW	15	ENE	18	NNW	8	WSW	16
16	ENE	26	E	10	ESE	6	W	12	16	NE	9	E	12	NNW	9	NNW	15
17	ENE	16	E	7	E	3	NNW	13	17	E	16	E	9	NNW	7	SSE	10
18	ENE	14	E	10	NW	9	W	7	18	WSW	14	SE	10	NW	9	E	9
19	ESE	8	ENE	16	NNW	12	NNW	12	19	W	10	NNE	5	W	12	N	9
20	NW	12	ENE	9	NNW	10	NNW	2	20	SSE	5	ESE	8	ENE	5	ESE	5
21	SSW	2	N	3	SSE	5	E	16	21	SE	12	NNW	6	E	12	N	7
22	E	11	NNW	3	E	14	ENE	14	22	SE	7	ENE	13	N	1	E	14
23	SE	10	W	10	NNW	9	WSW	12	23	NNE	7	E	13	NNW	12	NNW	12
24	NNW	7	NNW	14	NNW	9	SSE	1	24	E	7	SE	9	NE	5	WSW	1
25	ESE	5	W	5	WSW	13	E	14	25	E	6	SSW	8	SSW	9	NNW	9
26	NW	5	SSW	3	E	12	E	14	26	SW	13	WSW	2	NW	15	NE	7
27	NW	14	NNW	12	E	8	SE	10	27	SSW	6	SE	3	E	14	SE	7
28	W	7	NNW	7	E	18	SW	14	28	W	8	SE	6	ENE	12	SSW	10
29	ESE	7	S	1	SE	8	SSE	12	29	NNW	16	NW	9	E	5	SSW	14
30	SSE	6	SSE	6	E	14	SSW	5	30	NW	14	W	2	E	14	NNW	14
31			W	9	SSW	10			31			NNW	5	E	15		
Monthly Vector Resultant	E	56	NNE	62	N	25	W	38	Monthly Vector Resultant	S	30	ENE	30	N	37	WSW	70
Daily Vector Mean	E	1.9	NNE	2.0	N	0.8	W	1.3	Daily Vector Mean	S	1.0	ENE	1.0	N	1.2	WSW	2.3

LAKE SUPERIOR - VECTOR LAND WIND VELOCITIES AT DULUTH, MINNESOTA

TABLE 56

TABLE 55

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1958												Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1959											
	June			July			August			September				June			July			August			September		
1	ENE	8	ENE	5	SSW	10	ESE	9	1	W	9	W	6	ENE	10	E	12	2	W	10	SSW	10	E	12	
2	E	12	W	9	SW	13	SE	12	2	SW	10	SW	6	ESE	8	SW	12	3	ESE	8	SSW	8	SW	12	
3	E	9	ENE	13	N	7	NW	6	3	SSW	8	SSW	18	S	3	SSW	14	4	S	3	SSW	3	SSW	14	
4	E	1	ENE	18	SE	9	W	3	4	ENE	12	WNW	10	SSE	8	SSW	5	5	NNW	4	NNW	8	SE	13	
5	NW	15	E	8	WSW	12	ENE	14	5	E	9	WSW	1	NW	12	S	6	6	E	9	WSW	1	S	6	
6	SW	9	SW	8	WSW	14	N	7	6	SSW	15	SSE	12	NNE	11	W	9	7	SSW	15	SSE	11	W	9	
7	SW	13	NW	12	NW	8	NNW	14	7	SW	16	SW	7	ENE	9	ENE	19	8	SW	16	ENE	5	SW	17	
8	E	3	NE	5	SE	7	SSE	2	8	E	6	W	16	ENE	7	ENE	19	9	SW	7	ENE	5	SW	17	
9	SSE	6	E	12	SW	13	NW	9	9	E	10	NNW	12	W	3	SSW	16	10	E	10	NNW	7	WNW	16	
10	NNW	12	WNW	8	E	7	N	6	10	SW	7	NNW	10	NNW	3	SSW	9	11	SW	7	NNW	3	SSW	9	
11	W	13	WNW	7	SSW	7	S	8	11	W	22	NNW	4	NW	10	NE	3	12	W	22	NW	10	NE	3	
12	SW	12	E	7	NNW	14	WSW	2	12	W	8	ESE	7	E	9	E	8	13	NNW	8	E	9	E	8	
13	NW	14	SE	12	SSW	9	E	13	13	ESE	9	ESE	8	WSW	11	ENE	19	14	ESE	9	WSW	11	ENE	19	
14	NW	7	SW	13	W	15	SSW	12	14	S	9	S	12	SSW	5	NE	14	15	S	20	S	12	SSW	5	
15	NW	10	NW	14	NNW	9	WSW	15	15	W	19	S	10	SSW	9	NE	5	16	E	19	S	10	SSW	9	
16	N	5	W	7	WSW	13	NNW	7	16	NNW	11	NNW	11	W	12	NNW	10	17	E	11	NNW	11	NNW	10	
17	ESE	5	SSW	14	NNW	9	E	12	17	ESE	6	NNW	10	ESE	10	NNW	10	18	E	6	NNW	10	ESE	10	
18	E	7	W	16	ESE	8	SE	9	18	ESE	11	ESE	2	ESE	12	SSE	12	19	W	11	ESE	12	SSE	12	
19	W	5	NNW	1	NE	5	S	12	19	W	7	SSW	11	S	9	S	12	20	W	7	SSW	11	S	9	
20	NNW	15	SSE	5	NW	12	S	14	20	NNW	8	NNW	4	E	10	N	4	21	NNW	8	NNW	4	E	10	
21	WSW	7	SW	9	NNW	14	WSW	15	21	WSW	13	SE	10	ENE	16	ENE	14	22	WSW	13	SE	10	ENE	16	
22	WSW	6	WSW	12	WSW	3	SSW	15	22	WSW	13	W	15	WSW	8	WSW	14	23	W	1	WNW	15	WSW	8	
23	SSW	7	SSW	9	SSE	7	S	17	23	W	13	NNW	8	SSW	4	SSW	7	24	ENE	13	NNW	8	SSW	4	
24	NNW	12	SW	9	NW	16	S	5	24	ENE	7	S	9	SSE	8	E	12	25	E	7	S	9	SSE	8	
25	NNW	10	W	16	SW	9	W	15	25	W	8	SSW	5	N	1	SSW	11	26	ENE	8	SSW	5	N	1	
26	NW	18	S	7	W	5	WSW	10	26	W	9	WSW	10	ENE	13	SSW	12	27	SE	9	S	10	ENE	13	
27	W	9	ESE	6	W	8	W	9	27	SSW	12	S	10	ENE	5	SSW	16	28	SSW	12	S	10	ENE	5	
28	S	9	W	14	N	5	SSW	6	28	WNW	14	SSW	9	ENE	10	WSW	10	29	WNW	14	SSW	9	ENE	10	
29	SW	9	W	15	E	14	SW	9	29	NNW	5	NNW	11	N	7	NNW	12	30	NNW	5	NNW	11	N	7	
30	E	17	NNW	10	N	9	NNW	23	30	NNW	5	NNW	13	NE	11	NNW	12	31	NNW	5	NNW	13	NE	11	
31			SSE	2	NW	16			31	NNW	5	NNW	13	NE	11	NNW	12								
Monthly Vector Resultant	W	98	WSW	96	W	114	SW	113	Monthly Vector Resultant	SSW	28	SW	139	E	74	SSW	62								
Daily Vector Mean	W	3.3	WSW	3.1	W	3.7	SW	3.8	Daily Vector Mean	SSW	0.9	SW	4.5	E	2.5	SSW	2.1								

LAKE SUPERIOR - VECTOR LAND WIND VELOCITIES AT FORT ARTHUR, ONTARIO

TABLE 58

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds--1950				Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds--1951			
	June	July	August	September		June	July	August	September
1	W 12	E 4	NNE 14	W 5	1	NE 6	ESE 6	S 4	SE 3
2	WNW 14	W 5	NW 8	S 2	2	E 10	W 6	WNW 11	SW 3
3	WNW 16	E 4	W 2	NW 10	3	NE 13	ESE 3	NE 7	W 8
4	N 4	NE 5	SW 6	WSW 6	4	WSW 10	E 2	SW 5	S 2
5	E 7	WNW 2	WSW 7	SW 3	5	WSW 4	W 7	SSE 4	SE 3
6	E 3	WSW 6	SW 8	SW 6	6	SSE 2	WSW 10	ESE 8	SSW 9
7	NE 4	WSW 8	NE 3	SW 6	7	SE 6	W 5	ESE 5	W 9
8	ENE 9	WNW 2	WNW 4	WNW 6	8	SE 6	W 10	NW 11	W 9
9	WNW 5	NE 7	WNW 8	SW 8	9	NW 9	NW 12	NW 10	ESE 4
10	WNW 14	WNW 2	WNW 8	W 13	10	WNW 9	WNW 7	SSE 4	S 6
11	SSE 4	E 1	SW 8	W 13	11	SSE 4	SW 8	N 3	W 9
12	WSW 3	WNW 3	WSW 7	WSW 8	12	ESE 4	WNW 10	SW 4	E 2
13	WSW 4	WNW 16	SW 8	W 5	13	SW 6	WNW 8	SW 2	WSW 16
14	SW 8	S 5	E 4	W 8	14	NW 2	ESE 5	WSW 2 ^a	W 16
15	NE 9	E 7	W 4	W 10	15	ENE 5	SSE 2	E 1	NW 6
16	NW 11	W 5	SSE 4	WSW 5	16	SW 7	SSE 3	S 2	W 9
17	W 4	WSW 4	WNW 7	W 6	17	WSW 6	SSW 3	SSW 2	NW 9
18	SW 3	WNW 7	SW 10	W 8	18	SSW 3	NW 12	W 6	W 7
19	WSW 5	ESE 2	SW 16	WSW 8	19	E 6	NW 12	W 1 ^a	SE 6
20	NW 9	NNE 1	SW 13	W 8	20	NNE 9	WSW 6	WSW 3	SSE 3
21	WSW 8	WSW 6	NW 10	WSW 8	21	SSE 5	NW 13	NNE 6	W 10
22	E 6	WNW 1	SW 13	WSW 13	22	SE 5	NW 3	W 4	E 5
23	SW 8	ESE 6	WSW 14	Anemograph Out of Order	23	S 4	W 6	W 8	SW 2
24	E 13	W 1	NNW 6		24	WSW 2	WSW 6	SSW 4	W 9
25	NE 7	WSW 5	SSW 7		25	ESE 7	NNE 3	ESE 6	W 8
26	WNW 9	W 6	S 3		26	E 6	SSE 2	W 8	ESE 18
27	W 8	WSW 7	WSW 6		27	E 8	ESE 4	W 6	NW 20
28	WNW 12	WSW 9	E 6		28	W 4	NNW 2	SSW 2	NW 15
29	WSW 7	ENE 3	SSW 5		29	E 12	SSW 7	E 4	SSE 4
30	NW 13	E 8	SW 4		30	W 4	WNW 2	E 8	SW 3
31	ENE 4	ENE 4	WNW 8		31	NW 4	WNW 15	NE 14	
Monthly Vector Resultant	WNW 110	W 43	WSW 140	WSW 152 ^b 204 ^c	Monthly Vector Resultant	ESE 42	WNW 118	W 22	W 116
Daily Vector Mean	WNW 3.7	W 1.4	WSW 4.5	WSW 6.9 ^b	Daily Vector Mean	ESE 1.4	WNW 3.8	W 0.7	W 3.9

^aBased on two readings.^bBased on 22 days.^cBased on 30 days.

LAKE SUPERIOR - VECTOR LAND WIND VELOCITIES AT FORT ARTHUR, ONTARIO

TABLE 60

TABLE 59

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds--1952						Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds--1953					
	June	July	August	September	June	July		June	July	August	September	June	July
1	NW	E	SSE	WSW	10	6	1	W	ENE	E	WNW	5	11
2	ESE	ESE	WSW	NNW	6	7	2	S	NW	E	E	5	8
3	NW	SE	ESE	SW	12	13	3	E	WSW	E	WSW	8	4
4	SW	10	NNW	SSE	15	15	4	E	SSE	ENE	WSW	14	6
5	NW	7	NW	NE	3	3	5	NNE	WSW	ENE	W	17	13
6	NW	9	SSW	E	2	2	6	NW	W	E	W	7	10
7	SE	8	SW	E	5	5	7	S	W	E	W	8	18
8	SW	6 ^a	ENE	S	2	2	8	NNE	NW	NW	SSW	2	13
9	NW	22	NW	S	4	4	9	NW	WNW	S	E	4	6
10	NW	6	W	SSE	7	7	10	ESE	WSW	SE	E	0	10
11	NNE	10	WNW	ESE	3	3	11	ENE	SW	ESE	NW	7	8
12	SSE	4	WNW	E	6	6	12	ENE	ESE	W	N	16	5
13	SE	10	NW	SE	1	1	13	SE	E	SSW	WSW	6	11
14	NW	10	ENE	W	6	6	14	E	E	WNW	NW	0	11
15	SE	6	NNW	NNW	7	9	15	NE	ENE	W	E	4	10
16	SE	1	WSW	NNW	2	7	16	ENE	ESE	W	E	10	3
17	WNW	18	SW	NW	4	4	17	ESE	E	WNW	NNW	7	1
18	NW	10	SW	NW	2	10	18	SSW	SSW	WNW	WSW	6	7
19	NW	14	W	NW	5	6	19	ENE	SSW	SSW	W	11	4
20	ESE	4	ENE	ENE	7	7	20	E	ESE	E	NNW	9	2
21	S	4	N	N	5	1	21	W	ENE	W	W	2	14
22	SE	6	SW	NW	5	4	22	WNW	W	NW	SSW	6	9
23	ESE	7	W	W	11	10	23	SW	WNW	W	SSW	6	12
24	SSE	6	SW	WSW	3	3	24	ENE	SSW	SSW	NNW	2	6
25	SE	3	SW	NNW	6	6	25	W	ESE	ESE	SE	2	10
26	S	2	NNW	NW	2	9	26	W	W	S	E	6	4
27	SE	9	SSE	E	3	6	27	NE	W	WNW	WNW	5	10
28	SE	11	NNW	NNW	9	12	28	SW	WSW	S	E	10	6
29	SE	14	SE	SSE	4	5	29	SSE	WNW	ESE	W	16	7
30	SE	8	ESE	WSW	4	4	30	E	W	W	WSW	16	10
31	W	33	W	NNW	12	12	31	NNW	ENE	SW	W	92	21
Monthly Vector Resultant	W	39	W	WNW	70	54	Monthly Vector Resultant	NNW	W	WSW	W	92	104
Daily Vector Mean	W	1.1	W	WNW	2.3	1.8	Daily Vector Mean	NNW	W	WSW	W	3.1	3.3

^aBased on three readings.

LAKE SUPERIOR - VECTOR LAND WIND VELOCITIES AT PORT ARTHUR, ONTARIO

TABLE 62

TABLE 61

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1954			Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1955		
	June	July	August		June	July	August
1	NE 12	WNW 9	SSW 2	1	ENE 5	W 6	S 4
2	ENE 5	WNW 0	WNW 3	2	E 8	ESE 6	E 3
3	NE 5	E 3	WNW 10	3	ENE 8	NE 4	SSW 4
4	SSE 2	NE 4	WSW 6	4	NE 10	NNE 2	NNW 5
5	SSW 6	W 5	N 5	5	E 6	E 3	SSW 2
6	SE 3	ENE 6	WSW 5	6	E 9	NE 4	W 4
7	E 12	NW 1	SW 6	7	ENE 4	NE 7	NW 6
8	S 5	SW 3	E 3	8	ENE 4	SW 5	SW 6
9	WNW 8	ESE 4	NNW 2	9	E 7	NNW 16	S 2
10	WSW 2	ENE 7	NNW 7	10	N 6	S 3	W 9
11	ENE 10	E 7	NNW 7	11	NNE 11	E 4	SW 4
12	SW 2	NW 12	WSW 5	12	NE 4	E 5	SE 1
13	SE 4	WSW 9	S 3	13	WNW 5	SSE 4	E 2
14	ENE 7	NW 5	WNW 2	14	SSW 5	W 4	SW 4
15	ENE 10	SW 6	W 5	15	WSW 6	N 7	ENE 3
16	E 7	SSE 2	N 8	16	SSW 8	ENE 5	SW 2
17	NE 6	WNW 3	SSW 6	17	SSE 6	W 2	W 8
18	NW 4	WNW 6	E 5	18	ESE 6	ESE 5	WNW 3
19	SSE 4	SE 3	WNW 4	19	E 3	NW 2	N 2
20	NW 7	ENE 2	SSW 4	20	WSW 4	WSW 6	W 4
21	SSE 2	ESE 3	E 6	21	W 10	S 1	NW 8
22	NW 6	SE 1	SSE 4	22	WNW 13	W 13	WSW 4
23	S 4	NE 4	W 8	23	NNW 1	NNW 8	S 4
24	NW 6	ESE 3	SW 4	24	NW 2	SSW 8	SSW 8
25	E 3	SW 4	NNE 3	25	S 1	WSW 4	W 3
26	NW 12	NE 1	S 3	26	SW 5	NE 6	E 3
27	SE 3	NE 2	E 3	27	SW 10	ENE 7	ENE 8
28	E 7	E 5	E 8	28	S 5	E 4	NE 6
29	E 5	W 7	E 2	29	NE 3	E 8	NNW 4
30	N 3	WSW 9	SSE 1	30	SW 2	WSW 2	NNW 14
31	SW 2	SW 2	WSW 4	31	SE 2	SE 2	NW 16
Monthly Vector Resultant	ENE 58	WNW 21	W 26	Monthly Vector Resultant	NE 26	NNW 12	W 69
Daily Vector Mean	ENE 2.0	WNW 0.7	W 0.8	Daily Vector Mean	NE 0.9	NNW 0.4	W 2.2
							2.0

LAKE SUPERIOR - VECTOR LAND WIND VELOCITIES AT PORT ARTHUR, ONTARIO

TABLE 64

TABLE 63

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1956				Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds—1957			
	June	July	August	September		June	July	August	September
1	WNW	WNW	SSE	WSW	1	NW	SW	SW	E
2	ENE	NW	E	WSW	2	SW	SW	W	E
3	ENE	ESE	E	WSW	3	NW	WNW	WNW	NE
4	SE	ENE	ENE	WSW	4	ESE	WNW	NW	N
5	ESE	E	E	E	5	NE	WNW	W	SW
6	E	WNW	SE	WNW	6	ENE	W	W	W
7	NW	E	WSW	W	7	SSW	ENE	NNW	W
8	WSW	NE	SSW	WNW	8	E	W	W	SSW
9	WNW	NNW	N	SW	9	E	NW	WSW	SSW
10	W	WSW	W	ENE	10	NE	ESE	WSW	SW
11	W	ESE	S	SSW	11	W	E	NNE	SSW
12	WSW	ESE	NNW	NE	12	ESE	E	SE	WSW
13	E	NNW	NNW	N	13	ENE	W	SSW	W
14	WSW	E	NW	NNW	14	ENE	ENE	W	WSW
15	ENE	E	WSW	SE	15	WSW	ESE	NNW	SW
16	E	SSE	NNW	NW	16	WSW	E	NNW	WNW
17	E	E	W	NNW	17	ENE	ENE	WNW	SE
18	E	E	W	NNW	18	SW	E	WSW	NNE
19	E	E	W	W	19	W	E	W	S
20	WSW	E	SW	W	20	S	ESE	ESE	N
21	W	NNE	W	SE	21	ENE	W	ESE	WSW
22	W	SW	E	SW	22	NE	ENE	SSW	NW
23	ENE	SW	NNW	S	23	NE	ESE	NW	WNW
24	NNE	NNW	WSW	ESE	24	SE	SW	NW	NW
25	SW	WSW	W	E	25	ESE	NE	SW	SW
26	ENE	SW	ESE	ENE	26	ENE	NE	WNW	WSW
27	NW	WNW	NNW	ESE	27	S	WSW	ESE	SSW
28	W	NW	NE	ESE	28	E	WSW	E	SW
29	NE	W	W	NW	29	E	NNW	WSW	W
30	ENE	WSW	E	SSW	30	NNW	WSW	SW	W
31	NW	NW	SE	SSW	31	ENE	ENE	E	W
Monthly Vector Resultant	NE	NW	W	NNW	Monthly Vector Resultant	NE	NNW	W	W
Daily Vector Mean	34	50	54	48	Daily Vector Mean	33	38	106	72
	1.1	1.6	1.8	1.6		1.1	1.2	3.4	2.4

LAKE SUPERIOR - VECTOR LAND WIND VELOCITIES AT PORT ARTHUR, ONTARIO

TABLE 66

TABLE 65

Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds--1958				Day of Month	Daily Mean Land Winds--1959											
	June	July	August	September		June	July	August	September								
1	NNE	7	E	5	WSW	7	SE	4	1	SW	5	S	3	WSW	3	E	6
2	ESE	4	ESE	4	WNW	3	SE	2	2	WSW	8	W	2	SW	3	SE	3
3	ENE	6	E	8	W	3	WNW	6	3	SSW	7	SSW	5	SE	2	SW	4
4	NE	3	E	10	E	3	W	6	4	ENE	5	SSW	8	S	5	WSW	6
5	NW	12	ENE	12	W	10	ENE	2	5	NW	5	WNW	9	E	6	SSE	5
6	WSW	8	ESE	3	W	14	ENE	4	6	ESE	10	W	8	NW	3	WSW	11
7	SW	14	NW	1	NW	4	NW	4	7	NNW	1	SSE	4	NE	12	WSW	8
8	N	2	SSW	5	S	6	SW	7	8	NE	3	SW	13	E	4	E	6
9	NE	6	E	7	N	1	NW	11	9	W	6	W	12	SSW	2	WSW	11
10	NW	5	WNW	5	SE	2	NW	8	10	ESE	8	WNW	5	NNW	5	NNW	14
11	W	14	WSW	3	W	1	SW	4	11	NE	7	SW	4	SSE	5	WSW	7
12	W	8	E	5	WNW	11	N	4	12	WNW	14	W	4	NW	12	S	2
13	NW	12	ENE	6	SSW	5	E	5	13	NW	11	E	5	SE	4	SW	2
14	WNW	7	WSW	9	WNW	5	SSW	4	14	E	4	E	5	WSW	5	NE	10
15	W	9	NW	4	WNW	6	WNW	9	15	E	9	NE	4	SSW	4	N	10
16	W	6	W	6	W	8	ENE	4	16	ESE	2	SW	6	SE	4	WNW	3
17	SW	5	S	8	WSW	4	ENE	5	17	ESE	2	N	4	WNW	8	W	8
18	E	5	WNW	15	SW	4	S	2	18	ENE	4	WNW	7	E	7	SSW	3
19	SE	3	NW	2	ENE	1	SSW	1	19	NW	7	SE	3	SE	6	SSW	3
20	WNW	13	ESE	2	WNW	6	SSE	5	20	WNW	6	SW	7	E	4	ENE	4
21	W	2	WSW	7	WNW	10	W	15	21	WNW	7	ENE	2	ENE	6	NW	2
22	SSW	4	S	3	WNW	6	SW	7	22	WNW	7	E	7	E	10	ENE	10
23	ENE	6	ENE	6	ENE	4	W	1	23	SW	7	WNW	9	E	6	W	7
24	E	8	N	3	NW	11	SSW	3	24	E	4	WNW	6	W	10	WNW	5
25	NNW	6	SW	4	SW	4	W	16	25	E	6	SW	7	SSE	2	E	7
26	NW	23	E	3	SW	3	W	9	26	E	5	SSW	6	SW	5	SSE	7
27	WNW	7	NE	3	ESE	4	WNW	6	27	E	9	E	6	E	2	SW	12
28	NE	0	W	10	NNW	3	WSW	4	28	WNW	5	SSE	5	E	4	SW	11
29	NE	8	WNW	8	E	7	SE	4	29	WNW	12	SSW	4	E	2	WNW	7
30	ENE	5	W	12	E	4	WNW	17	30	SE	4	WNW	10	WNW	3	NNE	3
31			SW	6	N	14			31			WNW	14	SSE	2		
Monthly Vector Resultant	NW	94	WSW	16	W	90	W	93	Monthly Vector Resultant	N	25	WSW	89	ESE	26	WSW	62
Daily Vector Mean	NW	3.2	WSW	0.5	W	2.9	W	3.1	Daily Vector Mean	N	0.8	WSW	2.9	ESE	0.8	WSW	2.1

TABLE 67
LAKE ERIE OVER-WATER-EFFECTIVE WIND VELOCITIES (LINEAR FUNCTION)

Year	Resultant Wind ^a		On Axis (N 71°E)		3° Right of Axis		8° Right of Axis		11° Right of Axis	
	From	mph	Eff. Wind	Squared	Eff. Wind	Squared	Eff. Wind	Squared	Eff. Wind	Squared
1950 ^b	SSW (214°)	265	53	2900	52	2700	60	3600	63	4000
1951	SW (224°)	518	91	8300	95	9000	102	10400	106	11200
1952	SW (214.5°)	576	86	7400	90	8100	98	9600	104	10800
1953	SW (223°)	505	187	17600	91	8300	98	9600	102	10400
1954	SW (223.5°)	592	122	14900	126	15900	136	18500	141	19900
1955	SW (227°)	304	56	3100	58	3400	62	3800	65	4200
1956	SW (227.5°)	582	108	11700	112	12500	120	14400	126	15900
1957 ^b	WSW (238.5°)	355	102	10400	106	11200	113	12800	116	13500
1958	WSW (240°)	735	161	25900	167	27900	179	32000	184	33900
1959	WSW (237°)	445	94	8800	97	9400	104	10800	108	11700

Year	13° Right of Axis		16° Right of Axis		18° Right of Axis		21° Right of Axis		23° Right of Axis	
	Eff. Wind	Squared	Eff. Wind	Squared	Eff. Wind	Squared	Eff. Wind	Squared	Eff. Wind	Squared
1950 ^b	65	4200	68	4600	70	4900	73	5300	74	5500
1951	109	11900	114	13000	116	13500	121	14600	124	15400
1952	106	11400	112	12500	114	13000	119	14100	122	14900
1953	105	11000	110	12100	112	12500	116	13500	119	14200
1954	144	20700	147	21600	114	12900	139	19300	136	18500
1955	67	4500	69	4800	71	5000	74	5500	75	5600
1956	129	16600	133	17700	136	18500	141	19900	144	20700
1957 ^b	118	13900	113	12800	111	12300	107	11500	104	10800
1958	180	32400	174	30300	169	28600	163	26600	159	25300
1959	110	12100	109	11900	106	11200	102	10400	100	10000

Year	28° Right of Axis		35° Right of Axis		38° Right of Axis		43° Right of Axis	
	Eff. Wind	Squared	Eff. Wind	Squared	Eff. Wind	Squared	Eff. Wind	Squared
1950 ^b	80	6400	84	7100	87	7600	84	7100
1951	128	16400	121	14600	114	13000	107	11500
1952	130	16900	138	19000	142	20100	134	18000
1953	126	15900	119	14100	112	12500	105	11000
1954	128	16400	119	14100	111	12300	103	10600
1955	73	5300	68	4600	64	4100	60	3600
1956	138	19000	130	16900	122	14900	114	13000
1957 ^b	99	9800	91	8300	85	7200	78	6100
1958	149	22200	139	19300	129	16600	118	13900
1959	94	8800	88	7700	82	6700	75	5600

^a Resultant wind is not an effective wind.

^b Based on three months.

Note: Resultant wind velocity is in mph/summer season; effective wind is in mph/month.

Barometric Pressure Effect

The magnitude and direction of the tilting of the water surface caused by the inequality of barometric pressure at opposite sides of the lake were calculated by means of J. F. Hayford's (1922, p. 11) formula for the barometric pressure effect. The barometric pressures used in the computations were obtained from the U. S. Weather Bureau's Climatological Data, National Summary (1950-59) for American stations and from the Canadian Department of Transport, Air Services (Thomas, 1961, letter) for the Canadian stations.

Hayford's formula is as follows:

$$H_1 - H_2 = - (M_1 - M_2)(13.6)(\frac{1}{12}) = - (M_1 - M_2)(1.13)$$

where

$H_1 - H_2$ = barometric pressure effect, and

H_1 = elevation of water at point 1 (feet)

H_2 = elevation of water at point 2 (feet)

M_1 = barometric pressure at point 1 (inches of mercury)

M_2 = barometric pressure at point 2 (inches of mercury)

$$1.13 = \frac{13.6 \text{ (density of mercury)}}{1 \text{ (density of water)}} \times \frac{1}{12} \text{ (to convert M to feet)}$$

Example:—The summer season of 1950 with Buffalo as point 1 and Toledo as point 2 gives the following barometric pressure effect:

$$H_1 - H_2 = - (30.012 - 30.025)(1.13) = + 0.015$$

In this case, the barometric pressure at Toledo was greater than that at

Buffalo by - 0.013 inches; the greater pressure at the western end of Lake Erie depressed the water at the western end and caused a rise at the eastern end (Buffalo) of 0.015 foot.

TABLE 68

LAKE ERIE BAROMETRIC PRESSURE EFFECT
BASED ON SUMMER SEASON MEAN BAROMETRIC
PRESSURES FOR BUFFALO MINUS TOLEDO (1950-59)

Year	Barometric Pressure (Sea Level)				Difference, inch	Barometric Pressure Effect, feet ^a
	Buffalo		Toledo			
	mb	inch	mb	inch		
1950	1016.27	- 30.012	1016.70	- 30.025	-0.013	+0.015
1951	1016.15	- 30.008	1015.92	- 30.002	+0.006	-0.007
1952	1016.92	- 30.032	1016.65	- 30.024	+0.008	-0.009
1953	1017.90	- 30.060	1017.95	- 30.062	-0.002	+0.002
1954	1014.92	- 29.973	1015.25	- 29.982	-0.009	+0.010
1955	1016.65	- 30.019	1016.25	- 30.012	+0.009	-0.010
1956	1016.08	- 30.006	1016.02	- 30.005	+0.001	-0.001
1957	1016.30	- 30.013	1016.40 ^b	- 30.016	-0.003	+0.003
1958	1017.75	- 30.056	1017.20	- 30.039	+0.017	-0.019
1959	1014.82	- 29.970	1015.30	- 29.987	-0.013	+0.015
1950 ^c	1017.10	- 30.037	1017.46	- 30.047	-0.010	+0.011
1957 ^d	1015.80	- 20.998	1016.00	- 30.004	-0.006	+0.007

Notes:

^a+ = water higher at Buffalo; - = water higher at Toledo.^bStation pressure only is given for September 1957 in USWB Climatological Data, National Summary. Sea level pressure obtained by interpolation from sea level vs. station pressure graph.^cBased on three months (July, August, and September).^dBased on three months (June, July, and August).

TABLE 69

LAKE ONTARIO BAROMETRIC PRESSURE EFFECT
 BASED ON SUMMER SEASON MEAN BAROMETRIC
 PRESSURES FOR TRENTON MINUS TORONTO (1948-55)

Year	Barometric Pressure (Sea Level)				Difference, inch	Barometric Pressure Effect, feet ^a
	Trenton		Toronto			
	mb	inch	mb	inch		
1948	1014.98	- 29.974	1015.52	- 29.990	-0.016	+0.018
1949	1015.78	- 29.997	1016.08	- 30.006	-0.009	+0.010
1950	1015.50	- 29.989	1015.75	- 29.981	-0.008	+0.009
1951	1014.88	- 29.970	1014.80	- 29.968	+0.002	-0.002
1952	1015.80	- 29.998	1016.08	- 30.006	-0.008	+0.009
1953	1015.87	- 30.000	1016.20	- 30.010	-0.010	+0.011
1954	1013.82	- 29.940	1013.98	- 29.944	-0.004	+0.004
1955	1015.85	- 29.999	1015.88	- 30.000	-0.001	+0.001

Note: ^a+ = water surface higher at Kingston (Trenton).
 - = water surface higher at Toronto.

TABLE 70

LAKE ERIE GAGE DIFFERENCES VS. EFFECTIVE WIND VELOCITY SQUARED
(LINEAR FUNCTION)

Gage ^a Difference	Direction of Effective Wind Relative to Toledo-Buffalo Axis			
	On Axis	Right of Axis		
	Effective Velocity Squared (v^2)	Effective Velocity Squared (v^2)		
		From 3°	From 8°	From 11°
-0.19	2900	2700	3600	4000
-0.04	8300	9000	10400	11200
-0.07	7400	8100	9600	10800
-0.10	7600	8300	9600	10400
-0.03	14900	15900	18900	19900
-0.21	3100	33400	3800	4200
+0.01	11700	12500	14400	15900
-0.06	10400	12200	12800	13500
+0.05	25900	27900	32000	33900
-0.14	8800	9400	10800	11700
Correlation Coefficient	0.84	0.84	0.85	0.85
Regression Line	$1.06 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.185$	$0.981 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.184$	$0.863 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.186$	$0.826 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.190$

Gage ^a Difference	Direction of Effective Wind Relative to Toledo-Buffalo Axis			
	Right of Axis			
	Effective Velocity Squared (v^2)			
	From 13°	From 16°	From 18°	From 21°
-0.19	4200	4600	4900	5300
-0.04	11900	13000	13500	14600
-0.07	11400	12500	13000	14100
-0.10	11000	12100	12500	13500
-0.03	20700	21600	20700	19300
-0.21	4500	4800	5000	5500
+0.01	16600	17700	18500	19900
-0.06	13900	12800	12300	11500
+0.05	32400	30300	28600	26600
-0.14	12100	11900	11200	10400
Correlation Coefficient	0.87	0.90	0.92	0.95
Regression Line	$0.890 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.201$	$0.984 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.217$	$1.08 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.152$	$1.21 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.248$

Gage ^a Difference	Direction of Effective Wind Relative to Toledo-Buffalo Axis			
	Right of Axis			
	Effective Velocity Squared (v^2)			
	From 23°	From 28°	From 33°	From 38°
-0.19	5500	6400	7100	7600
-0.04	15400	16400	14600	13000
-0.07	14900	16900	19000	20100
-0.10	14200	15900	14100	12500
-0.03	18500	16400	14100	12300
-0.21	5600	5300	4600	4100
+0.01	20700	19000	16900	14900
-0.06	10800	9800	8300	7200
+0.05	25300	22200	19300	16600
-0.14	10000	8800	7700	6700
Correlation Coefficient	0.98	0.94	0.84	0.72
Regression Line	$1.25 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.2543$	$1.37 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.193$	$1.32 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.166$	$1.20 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.216$

Direction of Effective Wind Relative to Toledo-Buffalo Axis	
Gage ^a Difference	Effective Velocity Squared (v^2) From 43° Right of Axis
-0.19	7100
-0.04	11500
-0.07	18000
-0.10	11000
-0.03	10600
-0.21	3600
+0.01	13000
-0.06	6100
+0.05	13900
-0.14	5600
Correlation Coefficient	0.68
Regression Line	$1.29 \times 10^{-5} v^2 - 0.207$

^aGage differences are corrected for barometric pressure effect.

Note: Effective velocity is in mph/month; therefore v^2 is in (mph/month)².

TABLE 71
LAKE ERIE GAGE DIFFERENCES
VS.
EFFECTIVE WIND VELOCITY SQUARED (COSINE FUNCTION)

Year	Gage Difference	Direction of Effective Wind Relative to Toledo-Buffalo Axis											
		On-Axis		Right of Axis									
		V	V ²	From 3°		From 21°		From 23°		From 28°		From 43°	
				V	V ²	V	V ²	V	V ²	V	V ²	V	V ²
1950	-0.19	70.6	5000	73.2	5400	84.9	7200	85.6	7300	87.2	7600	87.8	7700
1951	-0.04	115.4	13300	118.4	14000	128.7	16600	129.4	16700	129.4	16700	124.5	15500
1952	-0.07	115.8	13400	120.1	14400	138.8	19300	140.0	19600	142.3	20300	143.1	20500
1953	-0.10	111.4	12400	114.3	13100	125.3	15700	125.7	15800	126.2	15900	121.9	14900
1954	-0.03	142.7	20400	144.5	20900	147.3	21700	146.7	21500	144.5	20900	131.3	17200
1955	-0.21	69.5	4800	71.0	5000	75.9	5800	76.0	5800	75.8	5800	71.9	5200
1956	+0.01	133.4	17800	136.3	18600	145.4	21100	145.5	21200	145.2	21000	137.2	18800
1957	-0.06	115.5	13300	116.6	13600	122.5	15700	116.3	13500	114.1	13000	102.0	10400
1958	+0.05	180.4	32510	181.9	33100	180.9	32700	179.6	32300	175.7	30800	155.8	24300
1959	-0.14	107.9	11600	109.2	11900	110.4	12200	109.9	12100	107.9	11600	97.3	9500
Correlation Coefficient		0.90		0.91		0.94		0.93		0.93		0.89	

Notes: V = effective wind in mph/month.

V² = effective velocity squared.

Gage differences are corrected for barometric pressure effect.

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